

DE BOW'S REVIEW.

INDUSTRIAL RESOURCES.

ETC.



EDITED BY J. D. B. DE BOW.

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ART. I.—POLITICAL CONSTITUTIONS.

THE progress of human government is but another term for the progress of mankind. The coronation oath of the prince, with its solemn forms and invocations, does not repress, in the heart of majesty, the desire for personal aggrandizement; and the vows of a people to subordination, whether expressed in the servile homage of the vassal or in the elaborate promises of written constitutions, are in themselves vain to secure permanent obedience. The mere form of government can never constitute a vitalizing or preserving force. Its excellences and defects are but representatives of, and exponents of, corresponding virtues and vices in the ruling mind.

Had rulers been true to the dictate of right, and people wise and moderate, how bright might have been the now dark page of constitutional history! How certain and how salutary might have been the progress of nations in an advanced and still advancing civil liberty! In the rude ages of society, government would necessarily have assumed some form of monarchy where accident would have determined the chief, and voluntary assent constituted the binding force of law. As society progressed, at once yielding to and promoting a demand for broader principles, government would next have incorporated an aristocratic element. Ever viewing itself as an instrument for public good—keeping pace with popular advancement—and, as the growing virtue and intelligence of the people rendered it safe and beneficial so to do, expanding, relaxing, liberalizing itself; when time and experience had established the proper safeguards, it would have adopted the form of a universal representative democracy. Wherever the

slave sighed for a brighter destiny, it would have stricken off his fetters. Wherever the nation's mind was aroused to activity, instead of inciting to rapacious and barren conquest, it would have directed the national energies to the establishment of ameliorating institutions, the enactment of liberal laws, and the attainment of a purer civilization. Guarding all that was sacred which prescription had accumulated from the struggles of the past, adding all that was valuable which a philanthropic philosophy could discover in present circumstances, it would have been retarded only by the delay in the development of national capability, would have culminated only when the national intelligence had reached its acme, and would have declined only when national virtue began to decay.

But with a keen disappointment we turn to the historical development of constitutions. Instead of principles and rulers selected from a judicious regard to the common interests, we find that force has inaugurated governments and established dynasties. Instead of a uniform and uninterrupted progress, we find for the most part gloomy inaction or vacillation between a blind acquiescence in tyranny and the distractive tumult of monarchy, and, even where governments have most advanced, instead of a complete system, devised by inquiring reason, and adopted by far-sighted judgment, we find that *successive generations*, composing often distinct races, and laboring in widely separated periods of time, have been the artificers of beneficent constitutions, united and made co-workers by the continued flow of existence and events, and that *individuals* have wrought blindly and upon fragments, and have contributed unconsciously to the slowly-growing completeness of a whole, whose prototype existed only in the bosom of God. One by one political rights have been gained.

II.—The facts of constitutions have preceded their philosophy. Their principles have been adjusted, not in the calm regions of speculative reasoning, but amid the conflict of real forces. Relief from pressing evils, and not the enjoyment of conjectural good, has been the object of constitutional innovation. Though the patriot, welcoming self-immolation, has sometimes rested serenely on the immutable rectitude of the great doctrines for the vindication of which he was about to perish, and a nation, in the enthusiasm of new-born freedom, has sometimes put forth formulas whose generosity of sentiment and generality of application left little for disinterested philosophy to desire, the re-

sult has ever been, that the citizen under operating constitutions has in vain looked for protection from the truths founded only in the reason, and has enjoyed those rights, and those alone, which had an ancestry and pedigree in the collective experience of mankind. Philosophy may have expanded and multiplied the applications of principles, but the principles themselves found a place in constitutions by a process coming not from thought but from life.

That such must be the origin of salutary constitutions—that the process by which they are evolved must be sought in history and not in metaphysics—in the connection and consequences of palpable events rather than in abstract conceptions and logical deductions, is evident from the complexity of the relations to be established, and the vast and at the same time delicate offices to be performed. In the establishment of constitutions two processes are involved—that of construction, and that of incorporating them into national life.

The constructive process consists in determining the organs and apportioning the functions through which government will act. The grand aim of the government must be established, to which all its forces must be subordinated. But by what standard shall philosophy fix this aim? "Whither shall I carry the nation?" is the question philosophy must ask herself at the outset of her labors. Is her wisdom commensurate with thus ordaining national destiny?

But how much is comprised in the apportionment of sovereignty! The duties of each office must be fixed—the grand duties of the executive, the legislature, and the judiciary, and the smaller, but not mean duties of the many inferior stations necessary to complete the organization of government. Rights must be defined, and, by some practical force, secured, not only the great rights which are indispensable to a tolerable civil life, but the smaller rights which are the chief enjoyments of private life. This sovereignty must be so distributed as to be shared by such classes of persons, and to such an extent, as is authorized by the capacity of the proposed participants. It must not be divided so minutely as to result in weakness, nor be so consolidated as to render it absolute. It must have such a connection with the actual life of the citizen as shall furnish the means of its own conservation and progress. The highest statesmanship must declare its utter inability to create thus, by a single effort, the stupendous organism of a state, and animate it with the energy of life.

But provided a constitution had been devised and logically perfected, the scheme in its manifold and complex details could find no avenue to a nation's mind. The argument by which its superior excellence might be demonstrated to a nation of philosophers would be meaningless to the popular intelligence. Principles must grow, and mature and strengthen in the minds of men, before they can acquire power, noiselessly and unseen, to protect and restrain each member of great and prosperous communities. Abstract theories of government lack flexibility and universality of application. They are good for the mind that conceived them, but useless for the masses. To be of general utility, they must, by some means, be amplified and qualified so that, too high for none, too low for none, they shall fit the necessities of the times.

There is still another obstacle which must offer more or less resistance to philosophy seeking to inaugurate government. A constitution must fix the tenure of property, and regulate the mode of its alienation and descent. Where a considerable portion of national wealth consists of land, the readiness with which it can be conveyed, and the line of its descent by inheritance, will determine the form of government. If long entails be sanctioned, and the principle of primogeniture be adopted, vast estates, descending and accumulating in families, will create a landed aristocracy, which will, to a greater or less degree, possess itself of hereditary power, while, if the broader principle be established of transmitting property equally to heirs of the same degree, and if entailments be prohibited, property will so frequently change hands and be so widely distributed, that equality of condition—or rather of opportunity—will be well nigh universal, and inequality will be incapable to be perpetuated save by corresponding enterprise and industry. Thus a lasting barrier would be set up to all caste springing from wealth.

But in man the love of property is inherent, powerful, universal. Hence, except in the very dawn of the political existence of a nation, and in the unformed and plastic institutions of a newly-discovered or newly-conquered country, property will have been appropriated and the rights of holders vested. Habit, existing institutions, and immemorial usage, will have developed a passion which nature implanted. A veneration for ancestry and a regard for posterity, stirring in the bosom of the representatives of families, will give an element of generosity to what otherwise would be a sordid desire for contin-

ued personal significance. Amid such influences the gentler entreaties of philosophy would be powerless to effect a voluntary surrender of possessions. An appeal to government, with a view to obtain a peaceful transfer, would meet with no better success. For in government the voice of hereditary wealth would be potently exerted to preserve itself from political extinction. The question then is decided. The ancestral domain, with its sorrowing tenantry, will descend intact until, when reality presses too heavily, it will be divided by means of that instrument never invoked by philosophy, but to which the oppressed must ever resort—the sword.

III.—If we examine history we find that religious and political truths have been wrought into national mind only by time and event. The history of the Jewish theocracy strikingly illustrates the difficulty with which nations can be made to comprehend abstract truths. The constitution of Moses differs from all others, in that it was promulgated by divine authority. The Jewish nation had been chosen and set apart for the purpose of introducing and perpetuating spiritual truths. They had been delivered from bondage by a series of miraculous interpositions, in which changing elements, and darkness and death, had struck terror to the hearts of their oppressors, and brought assurance to them. They had been preserved from re-capture by that passage through the divided and uplifted waters of the sea. They had been conducted by the "cloud" and the "pillar;" but so little had they perceived the hand of the living God, as it were, visibly outstretched—so little had the abstract notion of Deity as a spirit entered into their minds, that they could with wanton mirth offer worship to an idol of gold.

Notwithstanding all their discipline, slowly, and even at last imperfectly, did they comprehend the nature of their exalted mission and the sublime event in which it was to terminate. They had enjoyed a constitution which revealed a pure religion, and contained a code of morals and a system of jurisprudence. The authority of that constitution had been established, and during its early period maintained, by awful tokens of the divine sanction. Their wilderness journey, their enjoyment of the promised land, their captivity, their restoration, their long line of prophets, their types and ceremonies—all these Heaven-ordained influences, scattered and continued through two thousand years, still left them, as a nation, grovelling in the expectation of a Messiah as a merely temporal prince.

Nor did Moses, acting under the direction of God, give any

place in the theocratic system to the doctrine of the immortality of the soul. Though seeking to control not only the conduct but the thoughts of his followers, he made no reference to the rewards and punishments of the future world. Did not a divine economy reserve this doctrine till man, by long familiarity with spiritual ideas, had acquired the capacity to grasp and appropriate it in its fullness and purity; so that when mind and language had been prepared to receive it, bursting from the open tomb of Him who was "the resurrection and the life," it might complete the circle of religious truths, uncontaminated by the grossness of heathenism or mythology?

Nor do the political systems of Greece, as far as their origin can be traced, disclose any principles but such as were the slowly-growing result of the vicissitudes of a nation emerging from barbarian to a sensuous civilization. Their so-called law-givers seem to have introduced only such changes as turbulent and contending interests necessitated. Both Solon and Lycurgus were summoned to political importance by the violent strife of factions. Their measures were remedial. The small extent of territory of their several states caused the existence of evils to be immediately felt; and, while the absorbing devotion of the Grecian mind to the interests of the state, viewed as a moral person and not as a mechanical instrumentality, was prolific in heroic character, it was also a powerful auxiliary to needed political reform. The wisdom of the sages was exerted not in speculative invention, but in the interpretation of, and coöperation with, the spirit of past and passing events. Their aims were but the aims of Greece. The end for which they wrought was not an approach to ideal excellence, but an escape from threatening misrule; the means which they employed were furnished by experience and not speculation. In the Mosaic and Grecian constitutions, as history has handed them down, the student finds all squares enlivened by the pleasing hue of popular freedom, but in the several squares it is graduated and intermingled with other and darker colors, in such varied degrees as to show that each and all were tinged, not in accordance with theory, but by the spirit of widely-diversified local facts.

Rome, considered as the seat of government, had a growth guided by the same principles as Rome the inhabited town. A few fishermen's huts grew to be a vast metropolis, in which rose and frowned the architectural magnificence of the world.

An adventurous fratricide, surrounded by an assemblage of fugitive slaves, established a centre around which was to be formed a system of jurisprudence of unequalled breadth and precision. It is not more certain that the streets of Rome were laid out and from time to time increased as convenience dictated, than that the materials of her constitution were contributed, and its construction and frequent reconstruction controlled, by the facts of her history. All through her course, from the time when she emerges from the mists of myth, down to her inglorious decline, the great law manifested in her political institutions is, that all power seeks to dominate in government, and will do so except as it is checked and controlled by some other power. While the constitution of the Roman commonwealth kept alive the leading idea which Greece developed—that political power resides in the people—expanding or contracting as the excited plebeians or the grasping patricians gained an increased influence, it contained little that could foster individual liberty. A crowded population, acting directly and collectively, could never develop a system of personal rights. Hence Rome made but little advance in civil liberty. Her republicanism was a failure, for the reason that the genius of a nation, however transcendent, can, in government, only reproduce principles which circumstances have established or disclosed. Another nation, under more auspicious circumstances, was to realize a constitutional destiny which had been denied to her.

The nation called to this elevated career was the English. On a distant island, "in the extremity of the world," a train of causes was being set in motion which was to develop a new civil liberty. This liberty was to contain all that Greece and Rome had bequeathed, and was to add a new element, viz., the protection of individual, personal, rights. The valorous native Briton, the mystery-loving Druid, the fierce Saxon, the piratical Dane, the conquering Norman, and, above all, the Roman, bearing the immortal hopes and liberalizing influences of Christianity—all participated in the grand work of preparing English minds and English institutions for such a conservative progress and progressive conservatism as should make continued advance at once possible and safe.

The great features in the progress of British institutions are the constitution of Parliament, the growth of jurisprudence, and the restrictions of the royal prerogatives.

An assemblage of barons and bishops originally convoked to advise with the king, was the germ of Parliament. Additional knights from shires, and deputies from the burroughs, summoned to strengthen the throne of an illegitimate monarch, formed the beginning of the House of Commons. The right of the commons to petition expanded, till their assent became a pre-requisite to the enactment of laws. They then strided forward as an aggressive power, and maintained that taxation and representation were inseparable. Thus has grown up the representative system of England ; commencing in the selfish policy and fear of a usurper, and ending in the swaying authority of the commonalty of England.

The common law of England, except as modified by feudal institutions, is derived from the civil law. The right of trial by jury came from the *Slavonic* race, and was enjoyed along with the fabled felicity attending the reign of Alfred the Great. Then came the right of public trial, then the right to the accused of being seasonably informed of the precise nature of public accusations, then the writ of *habeas corpus*, then the assignment of counsel to the prisoner, and last the confirmation of the freedom of the press. These rights, secured one by one as experience disclosed the want, are few and simple, but they are the fruits of ages of determined struggle.

The royal prerogative has been checked by the growing authority of Parliament, and restrained within narrow and still narrower limits by the vigorous expansion of the common law. But there have been three great occasions when the rights of Englishmen have been confirmed and extended by the sanction of the king to formal instruments containing their recital. These occasions produced the "Magna Charta," "The Petition of Rights," and "The Bill of Rights." The first was wrested by the armed barons from the timid King John ; the second was signed by the lawless and unfortunate Charles ; and the third was obtained from the newly-enthroned William and Mary. They contain the only written constitution of England. The demand for each was made under the smart of actual grievances. The assent to each was induced by apprehended consequences of refusal.

I have thus given a hurried outline of a constitution which has been maturing for more than a thousand years. Its energies have expanded so as to enable it to preside over and protect an unsurpassed national greatness on the land and on the sea, and to render more and more secure that personal liberty

which it has ushered into the world, and in which it "lives and has its being." It is strong and flexible. It is beneficent and progressive. Its peculiar constituent principles originated in real evils; when the relief was obtained, the remedial measure was wrought into a fundamental law. How active, and at the same time cautious, has been the spirit of the nation, which, co-operating with events, has wrought it out. That spirit, aided by the rebuked licentiousness of a monarch, cast off papacy with its repressing influences. It has exiled and beheaded kings; it has created a commonwealth; it has overthrown a commonwealth, and in all its exciting labors has suffered itself to be misled by no vague abstractions, but has sought steadily the practical, and with that has been content.

The consideration of the English constitution naturally leads to that of the United States, for the relation of the one to the other is that of the parent to the child.

It is difficult for Americans to speak impartially of the process by which our Constitution—noble structure!—was formed. Something of that patriotic reverence which led the ancients to refer the origin of their governments to heroes, is native to mind. It is a popular idea among us that our own government is essentially new. We are wont to speak of the "*framers* of our Constitution." But it does not follow that we *originated* a political system because we *commenced* a separate national existence. If by "abstract principles" we understand those given by the reason or deduced by logic, as distinguished from those taught by experience, we must decide that the essential provisions, both of the separate, and the United States, were derived from the realities of history, and not from "the abstract principles of philosophy."

The thirteen original States had been subjected to a long training as colonies of the British crown. Their local institutions had been established under charters. The earlier colonists had personally felt the inequality of opportunity created by the principle of primogeniture. They established, therefore, laws for the equal distribution of property. The political significance and influence of towns were the early development of colonial life. The colonies had, from the beginning, legislated through assemblages of deputies from the towns. Thus had sprung up a government more thoroughly representative than that of England. The colonial jurisprudence was of course English, so that when independence came, the charters became constitutions, and the colonies states, with complete systems of government in full operation.

Circumstances had also paved the way for the confederation. For when taxation had been insisted upon by the mother-country, the several colonies had met by deputies, to prepare a united remonstrance, and afterward, when war threatened, to devise means for united resistance. When the war of separation was ended, common danger, common success, and, above all, common interests, had fixed the idea of a union, of which the confederacy was but the expression.

This confederacy was, by the experience of six years, proved to be powerless. It had no authority. It had no sufficient revenue. Hence a new general government, with substantial powers, was rendered necessary; so that experience, and not philosophy, led to the duplicate nature of our system. The "United Provinces" furnished not only the name of our government, but the principle upon which its powers were shared by the general and State authorities. The apportionment of power among the several branches of the government of the United States, was made upon a principle of close analogy with the constitution of England. Our executive has the same duties as the British sovereign; our legislature was constructed like the British, save that having no hereditary branch, we substitute the Senate as representing States; and our judicial system and jurisprudence were incorporated entire from England's. In the production of our Constitution, we labored as Englishmen, reproducing upon American soil British institutions. The fruits of the centuries of English experience is ours by inheritance and a former appropriation. In all the grand drama, from the time when the curtain rises with the landing at Boston, down to the closing scene at Philadelphia, in the principles for which we contended, in the manner of our struggle, and in the care with which we cherished the results, I see abundant proof that transplanting had not destroyed or injured the idea of civil liberty which humanity had won to itself in the Old World. Everywhere, and in all things, I see a practical, trained sagacity, ranging through the wide circle of events for sure knowledge, but nowhere and in nothing, the rashness of self-confident speculation.

"Yet I doubt not through the ages one increasing purpose runs,
And the thoughts of men are widened with the process of the suns."

I do not undervalue our Constitution when I say, that its principles were bequeathed to us by older nations. For the truths which God works out by events, are valuable beyond those which man's narrow mind originates. In enjoying our

Constitution, we are enjoying the heritage of all former ages. The fruits of the Jewish discipline are ours in our ready and clear conceptions of religious truth; the result of Grecian development is ours, in the prevalent idea of the people's right to rule; a product of the Roman mind was received in its contribution from a refined and broad jurisprudence; Holland struggling and Holland successful, wrought out for us an idea of a blended government, which should be at once centralized and localized; the Reformation gave an expansive force to mind which was at work among the exiled colonists; and England supplied, not only the outline of our form of government, but a distinct idea of a civil condition, in which liberty was removed from anarchy, and restraint prevented from becoming despotism. All the resultant ideas looming up and operating in their freedom in the American mind, rendered the adoption of a constitution substantially differing from the present one, practically impossible.

IV.—But abstract principles have been essayed in government, and that too in recent times. A constitution was formed for the colony of South Carolina, by Locke the philosopher and the scholarly Shaftesbury. It was a semi-feudal system, thoroughly elaborated in all its ramifications. But an already established community had not the ability to re-adjust itself according to speculative principles, and the constitution of the philosopher, whose *diagnosis* of the mind has been the admiration of thinkers, soon became obsolete.

An experiment was also made, but on a larger scale, and with more fatal consequences. Imaginative, speculative, and infidel France, weary of an enfeebled monarchy, intrusted her political destiny to philosophy. She strove not to follow, but to guide events; she disregarded customs and institutions; she did not consult capacity; she put no faith in the doctrine that principles must become structural in society before they can be fundamental in government; with the liberality of reason itself, she propounded a system based upon liberty, equality, and fraternity. These principles, set at work at once and in their fullness, rendered society a riotous mob. Liberty became lawlessness; the sudden process of equalizing resulted in demoralization, and abstract fraternity became practical fratricide. A wide-spread anarchy devastated and destroyed, and a horror-stricken people welcomed a succeeding despotism. The career of governments formed on abstract principles must ever be thus brief and abruptly terminated.

V.—I have thus examined the subject with reference to the known principles of mind and the nature of government, as well as in the light of history, and I conclude that the formative influence which works in the development of beneficent constitutions, resides in *fact* and not in *philosophy*; that the dream precedes the interpretation; that we must look for an analogy in nature and not in art, and pronounce the normal condition of a state a growth, and not a structure. This law of man's progress in government, is but an illustration of a still wider—the universal—law of mind, that truth has found its entrance into the understanding of mankind, through the door of actual experience. Truth would have perished from among men, had it rested in formulas alone. If in religion, humanity, struggling for four thousand years, with the problems of destiny, and urged by the responsibilities of living, had sought in vain for the simple law of love till it was manifested by the divine Saviour in a human life and death; if science, reaching its arms from pole to pole, and goaded on by an insatiate curiosity, can make its advances only by the toilsome accumulations of facts; if art, wedded to the freedom of the ideal world, can proffer no instruction save its masterpieces; if, in short, in all things, even the individual mind in its free inquiry, has but classified and generalized facts, what wonder that the collective mind of a nation—often clouded by ignorance, occupied with life's necessities, impeded by custom, misled by artifice, and fettered by force, has advanced only as stirring events have carried it onward, and has comprehended political systems only as it has viewed them glowing in the furnace of reality.

This conclusion, if correct, leaves the developments of political organizations of the future to be characterized by the succeeding eras of events. These events do not fall out by chance. As surely as the aggregate movement of our race is onward, as surely as Providence is leading the human mind to a higher and still higher stand-point, so surely will political constitutions embody more and more of the liberality and justice of ideal governments. The constitutions of the various states of Greece, notwithstanding her resplendent arts and refined culture, were based upon the narrow idea that man existed only as a member of the state. The Roman empire, notwithstanding its strongly centralizing forces, was, by reason of its wide territorial expansion, compelled to give a recognition to municipal rights. Modern constitutions, repro-

ducing the decentralizing ideas, which have been given forth by successive civilizations, combining, eliminating, and intensifying them as changing circumstances have demanded, have thrown them in multiplied protective provisions around the liberty and property of the individual citizen. May we not hope that when a more thorough Christian civilization shall possess itself of the strongholds of society, constitutions of government will centre in the principle that man is entitled to care, not merely as lending glory to the state—not merely as acquiring and enjoying property—but as endowed with a moral and immortal nature?

R. H. C.

ART II.—POPULAR SOVEREIGNTY.

A REVIEW OF MR. DOUGLAS'S ARTICLE ON POPULAR SOVEREIGNTY.

DROPPING from the hot arena of the Senate chamber into holiday life, Mr. Douglas has beguiled the tedium of his summer leisure by a magazine essay, elucidating his theory of squatter sovereignty. Naturally dissatisfied with the partial and fragmentary edition in which he is made to appear in the Senate chamber, he courts the solitude of Illinois and his private library, and in the article under consideration we are favored with his deliberate and elaborate annunciations.

The great prominence which the theme of the article has acquired in the public mind, the distinguished character borne by the author of the article, and the signal ability with which it is contrived, have conspired to secure it a general currency throughout the United States. People everywhere have read it, and it rises to be an object of some importance to consider whether or not the matter it embodies is wholesome and sound. Men, as a general rule, read as they run, and it is believed that the article of Mr. Douglas, thus read, is adapted to engender very disastrous conclusions. Its positions are taken with such ingenious unfairness, its argument marches under such skilful ambush, and its deductions present themselves under such a glamour of inevitableness, that the casual reader is liable to be fatally misled. It is therefore thought that the character and tendencies of this production might be profitably explored; and the present review is undertaken with the hope that an honest inquisition may serve to expose it, in its sheer and truthful aspects.

Moral philosophy lays it down as a first truth, that the happiness of mankind is a design of the Deity, and hence, that every act which promotes this design is right, and every act which obstructs this design is wrong. We have, also, as another fundamental fact in ethics, that whatever is useful is right, since whatever is useful contributes to swell the sum of human happiness. Thus we deduce *utility* as the great criterion of conduct. The moral sense of the world has established as a general rule, that no principle of action is *useful* which violates the sanctity of individual rights, inasmuch as the enjoyment of these rights is a vital condition to happiness. From this flows, as another general rule, that every system, principle, or law, which is at war with individual rights, of necessity must be wrong. Therefore, when we are confronted with a theory, however symmetrical, upheld by arguments, however consecutive, which in its practical results immolates any right of person or property, it may be safely assumed that an essential infirmity lurks somewhere, which thoroughly vitiates its theory.

These are some of the *criteria* by which it is proposed to estimate the propositions set forth in Mr. Douglas's dissertation. If his propositions satisfy all the exigencies of these standards, it will be allowed that they at least transgress no statute of the higher law, and then it will be only left to consider whether they consist with the Constitution of the United States.

Before entering upon the main issues, it becomes necessary to define the position of the intervention party, because Mr. Douglas has seriously misstated that position. In the outset of his treatise he classifies those who have expressed opinions on the subject of squatter sovereignty under three divisions. The second of these divisions reads as follows :

"Those who believe that the Constitution ESTABLISHES slavery in the territories, and withholds from Congress and the territorial legislature the power to control it ; and who insist that in the event the territorial legislature fails to enact the requisite laws for its protection, it becomes the imperative duty of Congress to interpose its authority, and furnish such protection."

This assumes to state the position of the Southern democrats. It is just half fact and half fable. The latter portion is true, the former unqualifiedly erroneous. No intervention democrat insists that the Constitution "*establishes*" slavery, but simply that it enjoins the protection of slaves whenever a necessity for such protection obtains. And this, if the expres-

sion may be allowed, not because they are slaves, but because they are *property*. The claim for protection, therefore, is not restricted to negroes. Establish the quality of *property* in any object, and the fact that its safety is imperilled, and a clear case arises which authorizes the intervention of Congress. Thus the *object* in whose favor protection is invoked, is a matter wholly irrelevant. The principle guiding the action of Congress is uniform and general, and embraces everything in the animate and inanimate world, in which a right of property may exist. But demonstrate the two essential facts of property, and the necessity for its protection, and the Southern democrats affirm that Congress is bound to afford full security to the owner, whether the object involved be a negro or a barnyard fowl.

From this it appears that Mr. Douglas has put the Southern party in a false position. There really exists no such organization as he describes, and thus his well-planned sorties have all been directed against a simple forgery of his own fancy. The real doctrines espoused by the democrats who oppose Mr. Douglas being now defined, we approach the doctrine which he upholds as just, and commends to our acceptance.

He classes himself in opinion with the party whom he thus describes:

"Those who believe that the Constitution of the United States neither establishes nor prohibits slavery in the territories, beyond the power of the people legally to control it, but leaves the people thereof perfectly free to form and regulate their domestic institutions in their own way, subject only to the Constitution of the United States."

There is just enough of vagueness in the language of this definition to make it as happily descriptive of the intervention as of the non-intervention party.

Under fair and logical rules of interpretation, it is susceptible of being demonstrated that it embodies the identical grounds which the Southern democrats now occupy. But as this is a definition of his own opinion which he submits, it must be accepted subject to the interpretation he places upon it.

It is to be generally remarked of Mr. Douglas's essay, that it is essentially a lawyer's production. The special retainer lurks in every feature. His argument throughout its course persistently ignores the discussion of principle, and abjectly appeals to precedent. The capital idea of his article is to identify the theory of squatter sovereignty, as a doctrine advocated by the fathers of the Revolution. In the conduct of this plan Mr. Douglas as-

sumes the infallibility of the colonial legislatures, and registers their utterances as unalterable rules of political action. He discovers squatter sovereignty to be their paramount and critical maxim of government, and claims its application in favor of our territorial communities. The whole scheme of his argument founds upon the two assumptions, that the colonial doctrines of government were despotically correct, and that the relations which subsist between the Congress and territories of the United States, are identical with those which connected Great Britain with her American colonies.

On the former of these assumptions it need only be remarked that, however reverentially we regard the authors of our republic, as well as the political opinions on which they acted, we should be false to the spirit which animated them, did we fail to repudiate any system, however encrusted with the authority of precedent, which sought the property disfranchisement of whole communities. It is not apprehended, however, that this discussion will lead us into a conflict with any of the great principles underlying the war of Independence. A consideration of Mr. Douglas's second assumption will expose such a radical difference between the relations of the American colonies and territories, with their respective governments, as must repel the idea of adducing them as parallel cases.

The fallacy on which this second assumption rests, is one customary among sophists. It consists in extending, by analogy, some principle established as true of a single case, or class of cases, to another case, or class of cases, which are unlike in some important particulars. Thus Mr. Douglas, under the belief that he has established the right of the American colonies to admit or exclude African slaves, as they might select, attempts to extend the same right to the territories of the United States. Here, even granting that he has established the right in the colonies, he overlooks the fact that his cases exhibit that fatal want of similarity which clearly corrupts the analogy.

Before attempting to designate the particulars in which this want of similarity is observed, the propositions of Mr. Douglas will be considered from his own points of view. He wishes to establish that Virginia stood to England as Kansas stands to the United States. For the sake of argument it will be allowed that he establishes that fact, what results? He takes Virginia as fairly representing the sense of the other colonies on the subject of the slave-trade, and extracts a chapter from her an-

te-revolutionary history, describing her action with reference to that traffic. He reads to us sundry acts passed by the provincial legislature of Virginia, showing that they considered the slave-trade as among the questions affecting the "internal polity" of Virginia, and therefore one over which she had the exclusive right of legislation.

Mr. Douglas might have gone on with equal truth to allege that Washington looked upon African slavery as a grievous wrong, and that Madison and Jefferson regarded it as an unmitigated evil, shortly to be expunged from our political system. Had he done this, I should have scissored the statement from the pages of *Harper*, and by its side have pasted an extract from a February number of the New-Orleans *Delta*, containing an admirable report of a speech made by Senator Douglas, to the people of Louisiana. In this extract it would have been seen that the Senator from Illinois made a grave issue with the sages of the Revolution, and so far from adhering to his *role* of the infatuated disciple, that he absolutely scouted the teachings of his masters, and, in a discourse of great power, advocated the plan of African slavery, as morally right, as an essential element in our labor economy, and as a great providence to the slave.

Mr. Douglas is invited to consider the moral which flows from this. All human precedents are fallible, and actual results are the only means we have of measuring the soundness of abstract principles, and coercing their operation within legitimate spheres. By the light of these "results" we have just ascertained that Jefferson was wrong and that Mr. Douglas was right, and now by this same light it is proposed to estimate the action of the colonial legislature.

It has been seen that Virginia, with her sister dependencies, claimed the right of exclusively controlling the slave-trade, and that she officially expressed this right through various legislative provisions. We are also informed that the British Parliament disapproved these enactments, and passed laws obstructing their operation. These are the naked facts, and on these facts, without going beyond or behind them, utterly ignoring every surrounding circumstance, however relevant and explanatory, Mr. Douglas unqualifiedly applauds Virginia, and as unqualifiedly denounces Great Britain. This is hardly the course of a logical searcher after truth. Because the colonies rightfully resisted and overthrew a general system of oppression, it does not follow, necessarily, that every measure they advocated was just, or that every measure they opposed

was unjust. From the despotic action of the English government in many things, it cannot be justly argued that it was despotic in *all things*. This is to shut the eyes on the vices of one fallible agency, and refuse to see a virtue in another fallible agency; and this is just what Mr. Douglas has elaborately done. He cannot see wrong in colonial, and will not see right in British action.

The palpable unfairness of this system of reasoning is illustrated by the case under consideration. Related as Virginia was to England, the act of her colonial assembly excluding British citizens with their slaves, can only be esteemed as subversive of property rights, and England, in interposing her veto to avert the consequences of this act, must be held to have done an eminently right and proper thing. Virginia acknowledged herself to be a colony of Great Britain, and subject to her laws, and this logically withheld her from making any discrimination against property held by an English citizen, and recognized as property, by the laws whose supremacy Virginia admitted.

Mr. Douglas informs us that Virginia made loud proclamation of her allegiance to the British crown, vaunted her attachment to British institutions, and claimed, as an inestimable inheritance, the rights and immunities secured by the British Constitution. And yet, with a tongue heavy with such protestations, she is found forging a set of the most oppressive acts against a number of her fellow-subjects, claiming equally with herself the same constitutional birthright.

While, however, rating this action of Virginia as highly inconsistent, it is at the same time conceded that she might have made the veto of the British government the pretext for dissolving her relations with England, inasmuch as that the right of revolution inheres in every people, resting as to its exercise in their sole discretion. Having dissociated herself with England, she might then, with perfect consistency, have admitted or excluded slaves, since then, she would have taken upon herself the functions of sovereignty; but while she remained a province of England, it is inexorably held, that she could not have rightfully directed her legislation against any particular class of British subjects, or particular species of British property.

Had Virginia, however, declared her independence on the rejection of her right to control the slave trade, it would then have been a question for England to decide whether such a

provocation was sufficient or insufficient. This decision would, of course, have been of binding effect only upon herself ; it could not have impaired the right of Virginia to make a similar decision. The latter being a distinct people, with an inherent right of revolution, would have been the ultimate judge of the cause justifying their *exertion* of this right, while England, being the other party in interest, would have been equally entitled to determine what her interests in the premises required. The probabilities are, that there would have been an appeal to arms. One party or the other, in the case supposed, must have been wrong, and we, who are so far removed, may be accounted to have sufficiently acquired the character of impartial third parties to decide the question.

It is admitted that circumstances might have prevailed in Virginia of such a nature, that a persistence in the slave-trade would have endangered her very existence. In fact, the probabilities are that such circumstances did exist, and therefore, that the case of Virginia comes under an exceptional rule, to be hereafter considered. She was, as a colony, environed by hostile hordes of Indians, and it is urged that these, fraternizing with the equally savage Africans, ceaselessly threatened to exterminate her. Admitting this to be true, and it is at once conceded, that Virginia was amply provoked to exert her revolutionary right, and to take any preliminary action which she thought essential to her integrity. This, of course, would have authorized her to exclude slaves, declare martial law, or make any other exigent provision. But had she excluded slaves from simple considerations of industrial expediency, it is submitted that this exclusion could not have been rightfully enforced. The reason is, that such an act is at all times an invasion of property rights, and like all such invasions, can only be justified on the ground of its indispensability to the public necessities. Society itself rests on the law that the safety of the whole subordinates the rights of the individual. But cases coming within the purview of this law are to be regarded as great, imperative exceptions, receiving their sanction from the same principle, which establishes their converse as the general rule.

To put Kansas, therefore, on a footing with Virginia, it is incumbent on Mr. Douglas to show that similar imperious necessities exist in her case, which bring her under the operation of the exceptional rule. It is believed that Mr. Douglas will find this to be a difficult undertaking. Kansas lacks both

of the savage elements in the Virginia case. She is neither menaced by formidable tribes of Indians, nor of African savages. The adjacent Indians are coerced by fear of the United States into amicable relations, and the negroes introduced are orderly and docile laborers, mild of disposition and educated under the teachings of the Gospel. From its territorial organization to the present time, Kansas has had no call for a soldier of the republic, unless, indeed, to sabre Mr. Douglas's *protégés*, the squatter sovereigns, into a realizing sense of the social decencies. There is, in fact, nothing in common between the colony of Virginia and the territory of Kansas which warrants the latter in taking the former as a precedent. It is notorious that the difficulties in Kansas originate in no apprehensions for her public safety, but that they found simply and exclusively in the hostility of one section to the labor system of another section. This, therefore, excludes Kansas from all claim to be considered as an exceptional case, and places her broadly and squarely under the dominion of the general rule, that no government has the lawful power to invade the property rights of its citizens.

Thus, it is seen, that even admitting Mr. Douglas establishes the analogy which he claims to exist between the relations of American colonies and territories with their respective governments, yet, that the right of action claimed by the colonies with respect to slavery, has no significance as applied to the territories, unless he can further show that the controlling circumstances which evoked and justified this claim in the colonies were also in force in the territories.

But it is not admitted that he sustains the analogy. It is held, on the contrary, that insuperable objections obstruct its establishment. The fundamental vices of Mr. Douglas's argument are, the deduction of a doctrine from irrelevant precedents, and its application to a condition of things to which it can only be applied in violation of obvious rules of equity.

Abstractions are not always sovereign over practical emergencies, and the statesman who, to inaugurate a favorite theory, is willing to annihilate rights and solid interests, is a political Jesuit, who, lost in the contemplation of his ends, is blind to the enormity of his means. It is to be seriously feared that this sort of Jesuitism is threatening to engulf Mr. Douglas's statesmanship.

There are several points of difference between Great Britain and the United States as to their relations with their respective

dependencies, which show that these dependencies are to be regarded as very distinct species of political communities. The first, and, perhaps, most significant of these distinctions, is exposed in the celebrated "preamble," in which Parliament declared its right "to bind the colonies in all cases whatsoever," and on which it has been said the war of the Revolution was fought. This preamble embodies the well-settled theory of England, and all other European governments, with reference to colonial possessions. They were regarded as so much chattels, subject to the unqualified regulation and disposal of the mother-country. Governed by no law higher than their own will, the rule of the British Parliament over their American colonies was nothing less than a legislative despotism.

With the territories of the United States the case is very different. They are under the control of Congress certainly, but that control is a qualified and defined control, mapped out and clearly described in a written Constitution. This Constitution extends wherever the jurisdiction of the United States extends, and it retains the action of the national legislature within the scope of its delegations, as well in behalf of the territories, as of the sovereign States themselves. It accompanies the citizen of the United States wherever he goes, and whether within the limits of a common territory or of a foreign State, guards him in the exercise of all his rights.

In their geographical relations with their imperial governments, the colonies and territories are widely unlike. Between the colonies and England, a great ocean surged for three thousand miles. This immense natural divorce necessarily disturbed those communities of interest and sentiment essential to the unity of an empire, and plainly showed that any intimate political relation was temporary in its very essence. The territories of the United States, on the other hand, are estranged by no desert of waters. They are not separated, save by a line, and that line is one of air. They and the States are one by situation, common in destiny, and all the ties of neighborhood and fellow-citizenship bind them together as an integral community.

Another distinction between the colonies and the territories exists in the nature of the tenure, which attaches them to their dependent condition. The dependency of the colonies was fixed, and to endure for all time. They could look forward to no free and sturdy majority, but were doomed to languish under a sentence of eternal minorship. The terri-

tories, *contra*, are merely under a temporary pupillage, in a simple state of transition, from which, after a brief period of territorial gestation, they are to be delivered as sovereign States.

It is again to be remarked that, in the degree of authority exercised by the United States over the internal affairs of the territories, they differ widely from the system pursued by England, and which was so obnoxious to the Revolutionary patriots. Under our present plan of territorial organization, Congress does not elect to shape the domestic policy of the territories. The power to impose taxes, and make other municipal provisions, is vested in the territorial assembly, qualified however by the essential proviso, that Congress should supervise the exercise of this power, to see that it was not unconstitutionally employed. This intervention is negative in its character. It neither assumes to impose a system of taxation without representation, nor forcibly compel the adoption of any domestic plan. It leaves a general rule, positive legislation to the territorial legislatures, reserving to itself the power to preserve the integrity of all constitutional rights. The reason of this rule is obvious, for whereas the local government is perhaps most competent to decide what legislation would promote the domestic prosperity of the territory, Congress, on the other hand, is the best and only judge, whether such legislation trenches on the rights of the nation at large.

In most of the features, therefore, which determine the political *status* of a community, the colonies and the territories are at a cardinal variance.

It now remains to subject Mr. Douglas to the test of a constitutional inquest.

In answer to the proposition, that the territorial legislature can exercise no power not delegated to it by Congress, Mr. Douglas announces as a general rule, and in italics, that "*every power conferred on Congress by the Constitution, must be exercised by Congress, in the mode prescribed in the Constitution.*"

Allowing to this rule all the importance with which Mr. Douglas invests it, it is announced as another rule of equal importance, and of more universal application, that "*Congress may delegate to inferior and local tribunals, powers of a legislative nature, which it is fully competent itself to exercise.*"

It is to be observed of Mr. Douglas's rule, that it restricts the ability of Congress to delegate authority only in so far as relates to the powers specially "conferred" on Congress. But the power to construct territorial governments is nowhere specifically "conferred" on Congress. That power is incidental to another, and is to be ranked under the head of the necessary and proper powers. Was there a special provision in the constitution requiring Congress to institute territorial governments, invested with certain and defined functions, then, indeed, might it be argued that Congress was authorized to *organize* these governments, but was interdicted from exercising or meddling with any of their described offices. But there is no such provision in the Constitution, and thus the authority to Congress must be construed with reference to the article from which it is inferred and the purpose it is intended to subserve. The power to construct territorial governments, as Mr. Douglas himself allows, is drawn by implication from that clause of the Constitution, which empowers Congress to "*admit new States;*" and is only justified on the plea, that such governments are "necessary," to qualify the territories for admission as States. This surrenders the whole question unconditionally into the hands of Congress, for when that body is called upon to enact measures "necessary and proper" to the execution of some legitimate purpose, it is plain that Congress is, within its constitutional sphere, the exclusive judge as to *what* these measures shall be. The Congresses heretofore have considered that territorial governments are among these "necessary and proper" measures; yet, as the action of one Congress is not binding on another, it is in the power of the next Congress which convenes to repeal the local government now in force over Kansas, and to abolish provincial governments as an element in our territorial system. Having in common with other Congresses, the same discretion as to what is "necessary and proper," it may think that anything which obstructs its immediate connection with the people of the territories was hurtful to the constitutional purpose in view, and hence that it was "necessary" for it to undertake the exclusive municipal legislation of the territories.

If, then, Congress may repeal the local governments, may qualify them as it thinks fit, is competent to exercise all of the legislative functions they possess, and its laws supply the only authority by virtue of which these governments may act, it is difficult to see how the local legislatures are to be esteemed

as other than "creatures" of Congress, and monstrous to contend, that they may exercise powers beyond the capacity of Congress either to employ or to delegate.

Mr. Douglas puts great stress upon what he calls the "Jeffersonian plan for the government of territories." This was a political system devised by Mr. Jefferson, shortly after the termination of the Revolutionary war, for the regulation of all territories ceded, or to be ceded to the United States, and was denominated by himself "a charter of compact;" a fact which Mr. Douglas does not fail to chronicle after a very pageant and dramatic way. There are two reasons why it is not considered necessary to criticise this "plan." The first is, that it was drafted by Mr. Jefferson in 1784, was simply intended for the guidance of the Confederate Congress, was not even binding on the next Congress which assembled after the one which adopted it, and was, of course, utterly without pertinence after the adoption of our present Constitution. The second reason for not canvassing the "plan" is, that it is rather selected to use as a weapon against Mr. Jefferson, which, during the last winter, was so effectively employed against Mr. Douglas himself. In other words, as there are some foemen against whom no other's steel is worthy, it is proposed to fight Thomas Jefferson *with* Thomas Jefferson.

The "plan," as has been seen, was produced during our confederated existence, and cannot therefore be regarded as so descriptive of Mr. Jefferson's opinion, nor, in the present discussion, half so relevant as the expression of that opinion subsequent to the adoption of our Constitution. The "plan" gives us Mr. Jefferson *before* the Constitution; but in the organic act for the regulation of the Louisiana territory, we are furnished with Mr. Jefferson *after* the Constitution. He was mainly instrumental in the acquisition of Louisiana, and provided, himself, the scheme for its temporary government. In the fourth section of the fundamental law of that territory, it is thus provided:

"The legislative powers shall be vested in the governor and in thirteen of the most fit and discreet persons of the territory, to be called the LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL, WHO SHALL BE APPOINTED ANNUALLY by the President of the United States from among those holding real estate therein, and who shall have resided one year at least in the said territory, and hold no office of profit under the territory or the United States. The governor, by and with the advice and consent of the said legislative council, or a majority of them, shall have power to alter, modify, or repeal the laws which may be in force at the commencement of this act. Their legislative powers shall also extend to all the rightful subjects of legislation, but no law shall be valid which is inconsistent with the Constitution and laws of the

United States, or which shall lay any person under restraint, burthen, or disability, on account of his religious opinions, profession, or worship. The governor shall publish throughout the said territory, all the laws which shall be made, and shall, from time to time, report the same to the President of the United States to be laid before Congress, which, if disapproved of by Congress, shall thenceforth be of no force. The governor, or legislative council, shall have no power over the primary disposal of the soil, nor to tax the lands of the United States, nor to interfere with the claims to land within the said territory."

Which of these is to be taken as the truest expression of Mr. Jefferson, is submitted to the judgment of all candid minds. In the "plan" we have Mr. Jefferson's opinion while his mind was yet in the revolutionary fermentation. His country, with him as its foremost political champion, had just emerged from an arduous war, fought on the basis of violated colonial rights. His blood was fevered, and all his antipathies still in active rebellion against the authority by which men were *ruled*. In his inflamed perceptions, England stood associated with all forms of this "authority," and thus his sympathies and his energies were equally directed in favor of the governed, as against the governing. He was to some extent fighting against a phantom, and it is not at all surprising, that in his plan for the government of dependent communities he should prescribe restrictions on the imperial authority, and a degree of sovereignty in favor of the colonies, wholly obnoxious to a justly regulated government.

In the territorial law of Louisiana, on the other hand, we have Jefferson with his pulses smooth, his head cool, his faculties ripe; of a mellow experience, at the top of his capacities, and the acknowledged chief of that party whose constitutional opinions have given to our policy its mould and fashion. In this, the well-considered, formal, and latest expression of Mr. Jefferson's views, is to be found a full repudiation of the "plan," and an express assertion of the doctrine which the Southern democrats now advocate. And Mr. Douglas is held to the tenor of this latest deposition. He has summoned Mr. Jefferson to the stand, has made him his special witness, and therefore, has excluded himself from all right to impeach his testimony.

It is to be further remarked of this territorial law of Louisiana, that it illustrates the principle before announced, that each Congress is independent of every other Congress, with reference to the government of territories. Thus, in its plan for the organization of the local legislature, and in other distinctive features, the organic act for the Louisiana territory dif-

fers materially from many of the territorial bills, since enacted by other Congresses. Having, within its constitutional limits, sovereign jurisdiction over the matter, each Congress is only constrained to consult its own sense of necessity and propriety. The general legislature, therefore, has large discretion as to the kind of government it may prescribe for the territories. This discretion, however, is qualified by one fundamental fact which imposes obligations, from which Congress cannot escape. That fact is, that, inasmuch as Congress is the agent elected by the Constitution to provide everything "necessary and proper" to the effectiveness of any of its provisions, it is always the party held responsible by the people. Should the Congress, therefore, clothe inferior agencies with power, it stands sponsor for the proper employment of that power; and hence, it would be truant to its highest obligations to the country, did it fail to preserve a vigilant police over all the operations of its subordinate agencies. So inexorable on Congress is this duty of superintendence, that it has not the power to *divest* itself of it; and should the organic law for any territory provide that all the methods of intervening in the domestic administration of the territory, were expressly surrendered by Congress, it is held that such a law would be unconstitutional on the face of it, and therefore null and void.

In considering that clause of the Constitution which empowers Congress to make "all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory and other property belonging to the United States," Mr. Douglas proceeds to show that the term "territory" has a property signification, and is not employed as descriptive of a political community. Mr. Calhoun demonstrated that proposition years ago, and the Supreme Court have since affirmed it in a late decision. Nevertheless, it is believed that the clause in question carries with it all the power necessary to authorize Congressional intervention to protect property in the territories. By it, the national legislature is invested with complete administrative functions over all the property belonging to the United States. The purpose of this investiture is obvious. It is that the public property, being common to all, should be made available to all. Congress being the general agent of the whole people, the office of administrator of their community effects is appropriately lodged in Congress. And yet this office is plainly nugatory, unless the administrator be clothed with the power of assuring to each citizen, an unqualified participation in the community.

Aside from a cruel appearance of trickery, it would seem a curious political solecism for any government to accept the money, and exact the allegiance of its citizen, and decline to vindicate a right which it acknowledges he possesses.

The "needful rules and regulations," which Congress is empowered to make, having reference to a common possession, can have but one legitimate object, and that object is the common advantage. Now, since this advantage can only be reached through the security of individual rights, it results that it is the duty of Congress so to shape those "rules and regulations," that individual rights shall be secured. Logically, Congress stands to every citizen who purchases an acre of soil in a common territory, as a constitutional warrantor, guaranteeing to him a just title to his land, and a peaceable enjoyment of all his property rights. Hence, the failure of Congress to provide such "rules" as would assure to every settler in the public territories security in all his property interests, would defeat the great object for which Congress was authorized to make "rules and regulations"—which was, to make the "territory and other property of the United States" available to all the people of the United States. If any citizen is not secure in the industrial agencies which make the territory valuable to him, it is plain that the territory is not *available* to him, for the availability of the one only arises from a protection of the other. It is therefore impossible for Congress to draw a distinction between the duty of protecting a citizen in the possession of the simple soil of a territory, and the agricultural instruments which make that soil available. No principle in law is clearer, than that the right to a thing includes everything necessary to its complete enjoyment. What these essential incidents are, depend upon circumstances. They materially differ with different persons. What is essential to one, is indifferent and perhaps unknown to another. The principle here involved, is best illustrated by an example.

It will be supposed that a farmer from New-York and one from Illinois emigrate to Kansas, each carrying with him peculiar implements of agriculture. Each buys land from the United States and proceeds to plant it. It will, in the meanwhile, be taken for granted, that he of Illinois, having been a fellow-citizen of Mr. Douglas, is of an aggressive turn, and insists that his implements are best adapted to cultivate the soil of Kansas. This opinion may or may not be sound: it is not,

however, binding on the emigrant from New-York. He entertains as favorable a prejudice with reference to his own implements; he has expended his substance in their purchase; he is familiar with their use, and to him, therefore, their employment is essential to the proper tillage of his land. Hence, his absolute protection in the use of these implements becomes a fundamental condition in the contract he makes with the government of the United States, when he purchases his tract of land. And the Congress of the United States is disloyal to its obligations of warrantor, if, while administrator of the public land, it fails to repel any trespass on the enjoyment of the purchaser, either as to the soil he has bought, or the means which he employs to cultivate it. And this, whether the trespass comes from a foreign or domestic source, whether from an invasion from abroad or from an enactment of the territorial legislature, authorizing a trespass. It is upon principles strictly identical with these, that the Southern democrats claim, that slavery in the territories may, if necessary, demand the intervention of Congress to protect it.

In discussing the views of Mr. Douglas on original rights and first principles of government, his sincerity has not been questioned, since it is thought he might have honestly misled himself; but when his commentaries on our judicial construction of these rights and principles come to be sifted, it is difficult to defend him against the imputation of absolute disingenuousness. In his review of the decision in the Dred Scott case, the giant is found ebbing into the dimensions of the special pleader. Where we had the right to expect point-blankness, we are beguiled by dexterous circuitry, and in place of his well-muscled and somewhat burly-natured thought, we are cozened by crafty disquisition and smoothly-managed fallacy. Everywhere throughout Mr. Douglas's examination of the Dred Scott decision, is to be discerned a palpable, if not wilful, misconstruction of the text. This misconstruction is so clear, so malignant, and so utterly unwarrantable, it would seem that nothing short of an audacious contempt for the sense of that community could have prompted its declaration. Several instances will be cited, to expose the rankness of this misconstruction. Different excerpts from the Dred Scott decision, with which Mr. Douglas enriched his essay, will be considered, and other excerpts added, which tend to elucidate those employed by Mr. Douglas.

The Supreme Court in the Dred Scott case declare :

"Now, as we have already said in an earlier part of this opinion, upon a different point, the right of property in a slave is distinctly and expressly affirmed in the Constitution. The right to traffic in it, like an ordinary article of merchandise and property, was guaranteed to the citizens of the United States, in every State that might desire it, for twenty years. And the government in express terms is pledged to protect it in all future time, if the slave escapes from his owner. This is done in plain words—too plain to be misunderstood. And no word can be found in the Constitution which gives Congress a greater power over slave property, or which entitles property of that kind to less protection than property of any other description. The only power conferred, is the power coupled with the duty of guarding and protecting the owner in his rights."

On this Mr. Douglas makes the following comment :

"The rights of the owner which it is thus made the duty of the federal government to guard and protect are those expressly provided for in the Constitution, and defined in clear and explicit language by the court—that 'the government, in express terms, is pledged to protect it [slave property] in all future time *if the slave escapes from his owner.*' This is the only contingency, according to the plain reading of the Constitution, as authoritatively interpreted by the Supreme Court, in which the federal government is authorized, required, or permitted, to interfere with slavery in the States or territories ; and in that case only for the purpose 'of guarding and protecting the owner in his rights,' to reclaim his slave property."

The necessities of the discussion do not require a verbal criticism on the opinion of the court, but the plan of construction adopted by Mr. Douglas makes that kind of criticism more satisfactory.

The court, in the extract above, declare with reference to slave property, that "the government, in express terms, is pledged to protect it in all future time, *if the slave escapes from his owner.*" In the hands of Mr. Douglas, the sentence in italics acquires a large and critical meaning. By it, he undertakes to establish that the escape of a slave is the only contingency on which the master can frame an appeal for protection, because that is the only contingency, in connection with which the Constitution refers to the rights of the owner. In other words, Mr. Douglas's construction, if adopted, would inaugurate the curious doctrine, that the express mention of *one right* in the master, excluded the idea that he had any other right. It is plain that Mr. Douglas's interpretation founds upon the assumption, that all claim on Congress for the protection of slave property is derived from that clause in the Constitution, providing for the return of fugitive slaves, and of a consequence, could only be enforced when the slave had escaped from his owner. This construction is based upon a radical misconception. The claim for the protection of slave property is not deduced from the fugitive slave clause of the

Constitution. That clause, so far from vesting the owner with all the rights he possesses, does not confer upon him a single right, but simply makes provision for the vindication of a right which he already holds. Had there been no clause in the Constitution providing for the rendition of slaves, the owner's *right* to have his slaves returned would not have been affected; the right would have been as perfect as it is now, and the duty on Congress just as imperative to make the provisions proper to enforce it. The express mention of slave property in the Constitution is easy of explanation, and by no means involves the conclusion that such property is exceptional in its nature, and entitled to no more protection than is there specially provided for it.

At the time the Constitution was adopted, many of the Northern States had provided for the early extinction of their slave institutions. This would, of course, be attended with an utter abolition from their courts, of all the processes of law by which was maintained the integrity of rights incident to property in slaves.

Such a consequence necessarily appealed to the Southern framers of the Constitution, who saw that, in the event their slaves escaped into the free soil communities, they would, in so far as the State authorities were concerned, be helpless, from a want of the legal agencies to enforce their right. The sheer right was a simple thing of straw, which required a suitable remedy to impregnate it with significance and life; and the fugitive slave clause was introduced into the Constitution in order to frame this *remedy* in such a form, that no possible construction could defeat its enforcement. And yet, it is plain, that this fugitive slave provision is a superfluous feature in the Constitution, and was only introduced at the suggestion of fearful slaveholders. The immensity of the interests involved, and the growing unpopularity under which their institution had fallen, made them anxious to have a specific recognition of it in the Constitution itself. At the instigation of such considerations, then, the fugitive slave clause was adopted; not because it was really necessary to the vindication of any right, but because it tended to allay the apprehensions of sensitive property holders. Had that clause been rejected, and had a slave escaped from his owner, the latter would have been as clearly entitled to demand the intervention of Congress for the recapture of his slave, as he who may now claim his property under the authority of our present fugitive slave law. The claims of the owner

on the general Congress, therefore, are not drawn from the provision in the Constitution, authorizing the passage of a fugitive slave law, but from that great principle which inheres in the very nature of the compact, that mutually binds the government and the people. An American citizen, for example, whose liberty or property is invaded on a foreign soil, is authorized to demand from his government a full redress of his grievances; and yet Mr. Douglas is challenged to point to a single provision in the Constitution which specially empowers Congress to grant this redress. The Constitution contains no such provision, and still, as Mr. Douglas himself will be prompt to allow, the citizen's title to reparation is clear and undeniable. His right is identical with that, which warrants the American master to claim the intervention of Congress to protect his property in slaves. They, neither of them, look to any particular clause in the Constitution, but find their sanction in the paramount purpose for which all government is organized, viz., the protection of the citizen in all his rights of person and property. The government which does not maintain these rights in their integral perfection, has failed in the prime object of its institution, and deserves only to be regarded as a simple affair of parchment.

In selecting, therefore, the fugitive slave law for a derivation of the claims for congressional intervention, Mr. Douglas has lapsed into a capital error, that vitiates all the deductions which flow from it.

The following is another extract from the Dred Scott decision, which Mr. Douglas quotes in part, and criticises in an almost incredible way:

"A reference to a few of the provisions of the Constitution will illustrate this proposition.

"For example, no one, we presume, will contend that Congress can make any law in a territory respecting the establishment of religion, or the free exercise thereof, or abridging the freedom of speech or of the press, or the right of the people of the territory peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for the redress of grievances.

"Nor can Congress deny to the people the right to keep and bear arms, nor the right to trial by jury, nor compel any one to be a witness against himself in a criminal proceeding.

"These powers, and others, in relation to rights of person, which it is not necessary here to enumerate, are, in express and positive terms, denied to the general government; and the rights of private property have been guarded with equal care. Thus the rights of property are united with the rights of person, and placed on the same ground by the fifth amendment to the Constitution, which provides that no person shall be deprived of life, liberty, and property, without due process of law. And an act of Congress which deprives a citizen of the United States of his liberty or property, merely because he came himself or

brought his property into a particular territory of the United States, and who had committed no offence against the laws, could hardly be dignified with the name of due process of law....

"The powers over person and property, of which we speak, are not only not granted to Congress, but are in express terms denied, and they are forbidden to exercise them. And this prohibition is not confined to the States, but the words are general, and extend to the whole territory over which the Constitution gives it power to legislate, including those portions of it remaining under territorial government, as well as that covered by States."

On the above quotation, Mr. Douglas offers the subjoined paragraph:

"Nothing can be more certain than that the court were here speaking only of *forbidden powers*, which were denied alike to Congress, to the State legislatures, and to the territorial legislatures, and that the prohibition extends 'everywhere within the dominion of the United States,' applicable equally to States and territories, as well as to the United States."

A more signal instance of palpable misconstruction it is difficult to conceive. If it were at all necessary, it could be readily shown, both by a reference to the plain language of the court, and to the Constitution itself, that Mr. Douglas, in the remark above, is guilty of an obvious and stark perversion of the text. For example, the court, in every instance where they denounce a constitutional prohibition, direct their denunciation against Congress, and Congress alone. In every case enumerated in the paragraphs quoted by Mr. Douglas, where a denial of power is made by the court, that denial is expressly applied to the general legislature, and not to the State legislatures. The reason for this is to be found in the Constitution, where it is to be seen, that all the powers specified by the court, so far from being, as Mr. Douglas alleges, forbidden alike to the Congress, the State legislatures, and the territorial assemblies, are denied to Congress alone, and by consequence, retained by the States.

A brief consideration of some of the cases remarked upon in the Dred Scott decision, will more clearly illustrate this point. The court declare, for instance, that *Congress* may make no religious establishment, nor abridge the freedom of speech; but they do not say that the authorities of a *State* may not do one or both of these. A satisfactory explanation of this is, that the court had no authority to say it, inasmuch as there is no provision in the Constitution forbidding to the States the power to establish any particular form of religion. The question of religion, and the freedom of speech, are matters over which the States and their people have the exclusive jurisdiction.

Again, the court say, that *Congress* is forbidden to restrain the freedom of the press. Do they declare a similar prohibition against the governments of the States? They do not, nor is there any authority by which they could, because the sovereignty over the press, not being specially denied to the States by the Constitution, is, of course, retained by the States within their respective limits. Nor has this power over the press been a void and unexercised power. There is, perhaps, not a State in the Union which has not at some time qualified the freedom of the press by laws which, if passed by *Congress*, would have been unanimously denounced as unconstitutional. In Louisiana, and in most, if not all, of the Southern States, any publication tending to excite a rebellion in the slave population subjects its publisher to prosecution, fine, and imprisonment.

The framers of the Constitution would have committed a curious oversight had they held out a bonus to licentiousness, by fostering powerful institutions, which recognized sovereignty in neither the State nor general government. Mr. Douglas, however, avers that this oversight was committed, and announces the anomalous proposition, that all power over the press was forbidden alike to the Congress and the State legislatures. Happily for the country, this proposition startles us only from the pages of *Harper's Magazine*, and is not to be found in the Constitution of the United States, or the decisions of the Supreme Court. These remarks apply in substance to all powers referred to by the court, in the paragraphs quoted from the Dred Scott decision. On examination, it will be discovered that each and all of these powers are such only as the Constitution expressly and solely denies to *Congress*. In so far, however, as the points at issue are involved, the question, whether or not the powers cited by the court are forbidden to the States, is not of the remotest consequence. The following extract from the Dred Scott decision, shows the irrelevancy of all such questions. It is to be construed in connection with other extracts before quoted, wherein the court discuss the freedom of personal and property rights, against Congressional invasion :

"It is a total absence of power, everywhere within the dominion of the United States, and places the citizens of a territory, so far as these rights are concerned, on the same footing with citizens of the States, and guards them as firmly and plainly against any inroads which the general government might attempt, under the plea of implied or incidental powers. And if *Congress* itself cannot do this—if it is beyond the powers conferred on the federal government—it will be admitted,

we presume, that it could not authorize a territorial government to exercise them. It could confer no power on any local government, established by its authority, to violate the provisions of the Constitution."

This is conclusive as to the entire question at issue. The vital point is here passed upon, and in language so explicit, that it is beyond the province of ingenuity to torture it from its legitimate sense. Considering this last quotation from the court, it is held that, by all fair and logical rules, Mr. Douglas has effectually sealed his own lips. He has announced that Congress is clothed with no authority to exclude slavery from the territories. He has further announced that he subscribes to the Dred Scott decision. Now, the Dred Scott decision declares, that Congress cannot authorize a territorial legislature to exercise powers which it cannot exercise itself. These are the facts, and they will be thrown into a syllogistic form, to better illustrate the position into which Mr. Douglas is driven by the stress of his argument. The declaration of the Supreme Court is taken as a premise, since Mr. Douglas expressly admits that declaration to be true.

If the Congress of the United States cannot exercise a power, it cannot authorize a territorial legislature to exercise it.

The Congress of the United States has no power to exclude slavery from a territory; therefore,

The territorial legislature has no power to exclude slavery from a territory.

This states the whole matter. It is not strained, or remotely unjust in a single feature; on the contrary, it is founded upon the express admissions of Mr. Douglas himself. By a reference to the last quotation from the Dred Scott decision, it will be seen that the first premise is its true and nearly literal statement. The second premise embodies a principal doctrine in Mr. Douglas's essay, and one on which he has often and eloquently declaimed against the Wilmot Proviso. The two premises have thus received the sanction of his full endorsement. The conclusion is inexorable from these premises, and hence it is claimed that by all the canons of candid debate, Mr. Douglas is forever estopped from advocating the doctrine of squatter sovereignty.

With reference to the acquisition of territory and the duties of the Judiciary in relation to rights in the territories, the court say:

"It is a question for the political department of the government, and not the judicial; and whatever the political department of the government shall recognize as within the limits of the United States, the judicial department is also bound to recognize and administer in it, the laws of the United States, so far as they apply, and to maintain in the territory the authority and rights of the government, and also the personal rights, and rights of property of individual citizens, as secured by the Constitution."

Again, in a special allusion to the territory of Louisiana, the court thus define the general duty of Congress with respect to the government of the territories :

"At the time when the territory in question was obtained by cession from France, it contained no population fit to be associated together and admitted as a State; and it therefore was absolutely necessary to hold possession of it, as a territory belonging to the United States, until it was settled and inhabited by a civilized community capable of self-government, and in a condition to be admitted on equal terms with the other States as a member of the Union. But, as we have before said, it was acquired by the general government, as the representative and trustee of the people of the United States, and it must therefore be held in that character for their common and equal benefit; for it was the people of the several States, acting through their agent and representative, the federal government, who in fact acquired the territory in question, and the government holds it for their common use, until it shall be associated with the other States as a member of the Union."

Language can scarcely be selected which would more vigorously expound the position of the Southern democracy. Throughout this whole decision, in fine, are annunciated the thorough community of the territories, the equal and indestructible right of their enjoyment by the common owners, and the efficient protection of this right by the national legislature.

Mr. Douglas closes his essay with a maxim, in which he discovers the crystallization of a cardinal truth; and as it is conceived that the antidote should go forth with the poison, the present review concludes with the following, and counter truth, fundamental truth, enduring truth, indefeasible, constant, and immutable truth :

As the territories are the common property of all the people of the United States, and as Congress is, by virtue of the Constitution, as interpreted by the Supreme Court, "Trustee" of the common property of all the people of the United States, it is the religious duty of Congress, so long as its trusteeship endures, to protect on the common property all the people of the United States, in the full enjoyment of all their rights of person and property."

ART. III.—BAYARD TAYLOR'S TRAVELS IN GREECE AND RUSSIA.

MR. TAYLOR is a sprightly, volatile, and correct writer, and a fashionable, common place, and hasty, if not superficial observer and thinker. He is a sort of miniature Macaulay, and because he is above want himself, and finds modern improvements conducing to his comfort and enjoyment, never doubts for a moment but that those improvements equally conduce to the well-being of all. Good railroads, good steamboats, good hotels, and abundance of trade and travel, must, he seems to think, occasion universal prosperity. He would not, probably, credit the anecdote of the two Yankees who made five dollars each by swapping jackets, but neither he nor Adam Smith, nor Macaulay, nor any political economist, we presume, would doubt that if the "swapping" be conducted on the grand scale, and the world does nothing else but travel about, bargain, trade, make profits, and keep up a continuous war of the wits, that, in time, everybody will get rich. The vulgar theory that labor creates wealth and trade (in general), but transfers it, finds no place in Mr. Taylor's fashionable philosophy. Such a writer is exceedingly agreeable to the multitude, because he holds out the prospect of universal well-being, attainable on easy terms. That he should despise Greece, which has neither railroads nor good hotels, and hold the memory of Leonidas and his Spartans (who knew nothing of trade) in contempt, is quite natural. 'Tis a popular way of thinking, too, because "money is the only nobility" in the modern world, as "valor" was in the ancient.

Mr. Taylor is the embodiment and impersonation of what is called "a sensible man"—he is never truthful, but always in the fashion. The prevailing *mode*, whether in morals, religion, politics, or dress, is his measure of right, the god of his idolatry. He writes for the reading masses, not from calculation, but because among the masses he lives, and breathes, and has his being. It never occurs to such well-fed gentlemen as he and Mr. Macaulay, that beneath the *reading* masses—the multitudinous *parvenus*—there is a mass of humanity ten times more numerous, who neither know how to read, nor are left time, leisure, or opportunity to read. For this "struggling, heaving mass of humanity," by coining whose groans and sighs such fashionable butterflies as Macaulay, Dickens, Sue, Dumas, Thackeray, &c., are enabled to "strut their hour upon the stage," Mr. Taylor has no sympathies. He hates the noble, he hates the brave, he hates the religious, he hates the

poor. He adores only that class who govern throughout Christendom, whatever the form of government, the *novi homines*, the *nouveaux riches*, the active, busy, meddling class of Christian Jews who "stoop to conquer." Shakspeare has so admirably depicted this class of *respectable* (?) people for whom Mr. Taylor writes, that we quote his language. Shylock (who would have been Baron Rothschild, member of the British Parliament and the peer of royalty, had he lived in our day) thus speaks :

"Signor Antonio, many a time and oft
In the Rialto you have rated me
About my moneys and my usances,
Still have I borne it with a patient shrug,
For sufferance is the badge of all our tribe.
You call me misbeliever, cut-throat, dog,
And spit upon my Jewish gaberdine,
And all for use of that which is mine own."

No wonder an author, whose philosophy has no higher aim than physical well-being, should hold in equal contempt the enthusiasm of patriotism and the enthusiasm of religion.

Describing the ruins of Sparta, Mrs Taylor says :

"I walked over the shapeless rubbish which covers the five hills without a single feeling of regret. There were great fighters before Agamemnon, and there are as brave men as Leonidas to-day. As for the race of military savages whom Lyeurgus, the man of ice and iron, educated here, who would wish to restore them? The one virtue of the Spartans—bravery—is always exaggerated, because it is their only noble trait."

The man who has courage enough, and elevation of sentiment enough, calmly, coolly, deliberately, to lay down his life for his country or his God, is the noblest of human kind. Such was Spartan courage—such the courage of Leonidas and his devoted band. Contrasting such courage with that of ordinary heroes, how nobly does Byron exclaim :

"Not so Leonidas and Washington,
Whose every battle-field is holy ground,
That tells of nations saved—not worlds undone."

When a man takes the classics "in the natural way," learns them, becomes saturated with them, at school, nothing more improves and adorns the mind, nothing furnishes such continued and quiet enjoyment in the recollection and study in after-life. But a knowledge of the ancients and of ancient countries acquired from guide books, classical dictionaries, and travel, is worse than useless.

We once told a distinguished man that "we did not purpose to have our son taught Greek, for it would be useless in these utilitarian times." He replied, "It will help to make him a gentleman!"

Nothing is more beautiful in the mythology of the ancients than their belief in tutelary deities, who presided over fountains, cities, households, and other localities. This superstition is happily employed by Virgil in the second book of the *Æneid*, when Æneas, about to fly from burning and sacked Troy, says:

"Next, you, my servants, heed my strict commands
Without the walls a ruined temple stands,
To Ceres hallowed once; a cypress nigh
Shoots up her venerable head on high,
By long religion kept, there bend your feet."

His sprightly account of his visit to the Fountain of the Muses, leaves the reader in doubt whether he and his mare Erato are indulging in irony or attempting the romantic. Master and mare are strikingly alike, lively, cheerful, and spirited, the style of the one and the gait of the other are an eternal hand-gallop. The "Travels of Bayard Taylor," and of Erato, too, might be advantageously compressed into, or commuted for, a single line of Virgil:

"*Quadrupedante patrem sonitu quatit ungula campum.*"

But we will detain the reader no longer from the "Haunts of the Muses," and the gallant feats of Bayardo and Erato:

"In three hours we reached the foot of Helicon, and looked up at the streaks of snow which melt into the Fountain of the Muses. Presently a stream, as limpid as air, issued from the cleft heart of the mountain.

"*O fons Blandusie, splendidior vitro,*" I exclaimed; but it was a diviner than the Blandusian wave, which gurgled its liquid dactyls over the marble pebbles. Ajax and Themistocles had halted in the shade of a garden on the bank; François was unpacking his saddle bags; so I leaped from Erato, my mare, knelt among the asphodels, and drank. The water had that sweetness and purity which makes you seem to inhale, rather than to drink it. The palate swam in the delicious flood with a delight which acknowledged no satiety. "What is this?" I said, as I lifted up my head, "can it be the Muses Fountain, coming down from yonder mountain." Whence this longing unsuppressed, in my breast—this desire that is springing, to be singing? My veins are on fire, give me a lyre—I'll beat Apollo—all hollow!" "Pshaw," said François (who had just taken a draught), "he now can drink who chooses, at the Fountain of the Muses. Why you know, the gods and goddesses, and nymphs in scanty boddices, are now no more detected in the shrines to them erected. That was only a superstition, unworthy a man of your position. To such illusions you're no dupe—this water is very good for soup!"

"Sound the hewgag, beat the tongon," exclaimed Braisted, who had not been thirsty, "I believe you are both crazy." But the mare Erato also had taken a long draught from the stream, whinnied, whisked her tail, and galloped off, one line of hexameter after another, as we continued our journey. So I devoutly testify that Helicon is not yet dry, and the Fountain of the Muses retains its ancient virtue."

This passage alone shows that our author has considerable

talents as a wag ; but waggery about Greece is quite as much out of place, as the Yankee trade of selling penknives over the tomb of Virgil. The "Razor Strop man" is not more dignified or more witty than Mr. Taylor, and as both are fond of the ubiquitous, it would be well to enter into partnership and publish their stump speeches, witticisms, and adventures, conjointly in *Harper's Magazine*, retaining the copy-right. The book would sell far better than the *Lives* of Greeley and Barnum, or *Uncle Tom's Log Cabin*.

He visits the Acropolis, and tries to show off his reverence for antiquity and his taste for the fine arts. The Parthenon does not absorb his mind, elevate his feelings, abstract his attention from the present, the past and the surrounding, soothe and compose him, as it would almost any other man but a Barnum or a Lord Elgin, but it causes him "to tear the passions and affect *hysterics*." Now, great grief produces this effect, but the sight of the beautiful, the classical, and the sublime, begets the opposite effect ; it soothes, tranquillizes, absorbs, composes. Erato would have acted her part better. She would not have perpetrated such miserable Yankee cant and affectation.

Dr. Rush in his *Treatise on the Diseases of the Mind*, a work more distinguished for genius than any other written by an American, has paid a well-merited compliment to Shakspeare, in saying that his play of King Lear contains "an inimitable history of all the forms of derangements." The doctor often quotes from this work of fiction, to prove and illustrate his theories. Now Shakspeare describes King Lear as affected with *hysterica passio*, not from viewing the Pyramids, the heavens, or the ocean, but from grief for the ingratitude and cruelty of his daughters.

"Lear.—O, how this mother swells up toward my heart !
Hysterica passio ! down, thou climbing sorrow,
 Thy element's below.—Where is this daughter ?"

Lord Byron does not have the hysterics at beholding the church of St. Peter's. His emotions are natural. His soul is elevated more and more, as his thoughts become absorbed with the sublime prospect, but he remains calm, quiet, silent, and contemplative. No one venerated antiquity and loved the fine arts, or better appreciated them, than Byron ; no one less than Mr. Taylor.

So much the better for Mr. Taylor, and the worse for Lord Byron. The love of antiquity gives men large and general

views, makes them despise the fashionable opinions of the hour, and become at once truthful and paradoxical. The man who does not speak and write paradoxes, speaks and writes falsehoods; for popular opinions are all erroneous, or at least but partially, locally, and temporarily true, yet to differ from them is to be paradoxical. He who deals in general abstract truths—who has sense enough to think for himself, and courage enough to express his thoughts, must be satisfied with self-approval, and the hope that posterity will reverse the hasty, thoughtless, prejudiced judgment of his contemporaries. The public understand enough truth to manage admirably every-day affairs; but each man mistakes his little modicum of truth—what is true only to day, in his neighborhood, farm, village, or nation—for universal and perpetual truth. To be truthful is to be paradoxical, and we take this occasion, Mr. Editor, to thank you for so often mentioning *our* paradoxes.

Now, we like Mr. Taylor as a man; we think he is frank and honest in the expression of his thoughts and opinions. He has luckily a popular way of thinking, or of adopting the common thought. He might think for himself, form his own opinions, but he is too busy travelling to take time for such unprofitable and suicidal labor. He now agrees with the world and the world with him, and they get along most cheerily together. Why quarrel with his friends and turn misanthrope, by publishing truth which few will read and still fewer believe. No doubt he thinks that crinoline and foundling hospitals, universal suffrage and elective judiciaries, are the greatest of human institutions, and will survive the Pyramids. Happy man! we envy him. But let him keep out of Greece. That is not a land for fashionable notions. We should not like to see a railroad profaning the field of Marathon or a cotton factory built upon the site of the Parthenon. But let us follow our author to the Acropolis and the Parthenon. He thus writes:

"Once having looked upon the Parthenon, it was impossible to look elsewhere, and I drew nearer and nearer, finding a narrow lane through the chaos of fragments piled almost as high as my head, until I stood below the western front. I looked up at the Doric shafts, colossal, as befitted the shrine of a goddess, yet tender and graceful as a flower stem, upholding without effort the massive entablature and shattered pediment, in one corner of which two alone remain of all the children of Phidias, and to my confusion, I must confess it, all my fine resolves were forgotten. I was seized with an overpowering mixture of that purest and loftiest admiration which is almost the same thing as love, and of unmitigated grief and indignation. Well, consider me a fool if you like, but had I been *alone*, I should have cast myself upon the marble pavement, and exhausted in some hysterical way, the violence of this unexpected feeling."

'Twas well, Mr. Taylor, you were not alone! Well you did not explode with pent-up passions, and like a "tornado shot into a magazine," complete the ruin of the Parthenon, which time and Lord Elgin had begun! Love, admiration, grief and indignation, all to be let out at once from your hysteric breast! Why, you would have raised a greater storm than old Æolus in the pages of Virgil.

Our author is one of the last men we should suspect of hypocrisy. We doubt not his religious faith; yet we fear the manner in which he speaks of venerated religious forms, ceremonies, and observances, is calculated to shake the faith of other people. Christianity, stripped of the formal and extraneous, degenerates into universalism and deism, and leads very soon to downright infidelity. Such has been its downward tendency in Boston, and such it will be everywhere. The Episcopal church, in both England and America, is attempting by high churchism to counteract this tendency. This new movement is headed by men equally remarkable for piety, learning and ability. If theirs be superstition, then is all religion superstition, for it is never found without ceremonial of some sort. If it be right to celebrate the birth-days of deceased warriors, surely it cannot be wrong to hold in veneration the memory of saints. A reasonable religion, squared down to philosophic rule, and reduced to human comprehension, is no religion at all. We must all believe what we cannot understand, or not only reject Christianity, but even dispute the existence of a material world. "*Credo quia impossibile*," is not an altogether absurd maxim. A possible religion must certainly be a false one. Not only does the antiquity of the Greek Church entitle its ordinances to respect, but the purity of its creed also challenges our approval. See what Mr. Taylor himself says of it:

"The Greek Church, however unlike the Roman, is better in its creed than in its forms, and its clergy, notwithstanding their ignorance, have a much higher moral character than the priests of Spain or Italy. As they are allowed to marry, they are saved from the scandalous excesses common to the latter. The absence of the doctrine of purgatory also takes away from them the opportunity of much pious extortion. The Church shorn of the monstrous excrescences of its forms, would differ but very little from that of England. A proposal on the part of the latter to enter into Christian fellowship with it, in the seventeenth century, was only prevented by the difference of doctrine on the subject of the Eucharist."

He often complains that he found the Greeks less tolerant in religious opinion than the Turks. A very tolerant spirit is not at all consistent with strong conviction and sincere faith.

The Turks are tolerant, because it is notorious they have little faith in their own religion ; the Greeks intolerant, because they are sincere and jealous Christians. The Virginia act of religious toleration proceeded not from regard to religion, but from indifference to it with some, and downright infidelity in others. Religious toleration, as it is now understood, is one of the humbugs of the day, which the Mormon and other religious isms of the North will soon dissipate. He says :

"The festivals of the Greek Church are fully as numerous, if not more so, than those of the Latin. Almost every third day is an *corti*, or holy day of some venerable unwashed saint, whose memory is duly honored by a general loafing-spell of all the inhabitants. The greatest benefit that could happen to Greece, and to all Southern Europe, would be the discanonization of nineteenthths of their holy drones, who do enough harm by sanctifying indolence to outweigh a thousand-times the good they may have accomplished during their lives. God's Sabbath is enough for man's needs, and both St. George, the Swindler, and St. Polycarp, the Martyr, have sufficient honor shown them in the way of chapels, shrines, candles, and incense, to forego the appropriation of certain days, on which no one thinks particularly about them. Not only are the laborers idle and the shops generally shut on every one of these festival days, but the University schools and public offices are closed also. The Greeks are very zealous professors, and would exhibit much more progress as a people if they did not make a millstone of their religion and wear it around their necks."

Better wear that than the collar of the rapacious task-master, who would make them work twelve hours a day. Better have too many holydays than none. Greece and the rest of Southern Europe have not as yet adopted the high-pressure system of society, which begets paupers and millionaires, and riots in famine and starvation. Mr. Taylor speaks in terms of high commendation of the purity of the private domestic lives of the Greeks. He says also that they are desirous of acquiring knowledge, and learn with great facility. Add to this their religious zeal, their light work, and the absence of extreme destitution among them, and there is left little cause to regret their hesitancy to adopt that *high-pressure system* of progress which our author so much admires, but which, so far, has only doomed the masses to overwork and insufficient food and raiment.

So soon as our traveller leaves Greece and embarks for the North, his book becomes very agreeable and somewhat instructive. His trip by steamer up the Danube, and thence by stage across to Moscow, is the most interesting portion of his work—because he gives us quite a vivid description of a country which will be new to most readers. His account of Moscow, though not possessing the same novelty, is quite graphic and masterly. As an agreeable writer of travels, when not

traversing classic ground, he is probably surpassed by no modern author.

We now come to a portion of his book which we profoundly regret any American gentleman should have written. We have no doubt Mr. Taylor is a worthy and correct man. Men's philosophies do not often control or color the moral tenor of their own lives; but when false and vicious, they are apt to exercise a most baleful influence on the lives and conduct of their readers. We allude to his studied and highly-wrought eulogy of the Foundling Hospital at Moscow. He tells us frankly that the institution is *ultra-socialistic*. Now, the ultra-socialists are the Free Lovers, who propose to break up the family relation altogether. What must be the state of that society which generates, among moral and enlightened men, such bestial doctrines? Will the South ever estimate properly her noble, moral, and Christian social institutions? Never, until she begins to think for herself! She has not yet begun to do this; she has not yet begun even to justify herself. Neither her press nor her statesman, while vilified by the North, have the spirit to propose a *comparison* between the working of their institution and ours. But the defence of the South only begins when she arraigns the North, and charges her with upholding and practising a social system that is inherently vicious, rather unchristian, immoral, and unnatural. The senator, the legislature, the statesman, the editor, who does less than this when his section is assailed by Abolitionists, is false and recreant to the South! But Southern politicians cannot rise to high places without Northern aid. The North holds the flesh-pots of Egypt. At present the cause of Southern rights and Southern equality is hopeless. The loaves and fishes are against us:

"A VISIT TO THE FOUNDLING HOSPITAL.—It was a pleasant change to me to turn my eyes, dazzled by the splendors of the Kremlin, upon an edifice which has neither gold nor jewels to show, but which illustrates the patriarchal or rather paternal character of the Russian government on the grandest scale. This is the *Vospitatelni Dom*, or Foundling Hospital; but the title conveys no idea of the extent and completeness of this Imperial charity. There are similar institutions in Paris, Stockholm, and Vienna, and other cities, on a much more contracted scale. Our New-York asylum for children, on Randall's Island, though a most beneficent establishment, is still more limited in its operation than the latter. In Russia the Foundling Hospital is characterized by some peculiar and very interesting features which deserve to be generally known, as they are intimately connected with one of those tender, moral questions our civilization is afraid to handle.

In every general view of Moscow, the eye is struck by an immense quadrangular building, or collection of buildings, on the northern bank of the Moskwa, directly

east of the Kremlin. The white front towers high over all the neighboring part of the city, and quite eclipses, in its imposing appearance, every palace, church, military barrack, or other building whatever. It cannot be much less than a thousand feet in length, and at a venture I should estimate its size at three times that of the Capitol at Washington. The governorship of this institution is only second in importance to that of the city itself, and is always confirmed on a nobleman of distinguished rank and attainments. The importance of the post may be estimated when I state that the annual expenses of the Hospital amount to five millions of dollars. A portion of the government revenues is set aside for this purpose, in addition to which successive Czars as well as private persons have richly endowed it. The entire property, devoted to the support, maintenance, and education of foundlings, in Russia, is said to amount to the enormous sum of five hundred millions of dollars.

This stupendous institution was founded by Catherine II. immediately after her accession to the throne in 1762. Eight years afterward she established a branch at St. Petersburg, which has now outgrown the parent concern, and is conducted on a still more magnificent scale. The original design seems to have been to furnish an asylum for illegitimate children and destitute orphans. A lying-in hospital was connected with it, so that nothing might be left undone to suppress crime and misery in a humane and charitable way. The plan was, however, soon enlarged so as to embrace *all* children who might be offered without question or stipulation, the parents *naturally* giving up their offspring to the service of the government which had reared them. Russia offers herself as midwife, wet-nurse, mother, and teacher, to every new soul for whom there is no place among the homes of her people, and nobly and conscientiously does she discharge her self-imposed duty. She not only takes no life (capital punishment, I believe, does not exist), but she saves thousands annually! She, therefore, autocracy as she is, practically carries into effect one of the first articles of the *ultra-socialistic* code."

He concludes the chapter with an elaborate eulogy of this and like institutions.

Paris, Stockholm, and Vienna, where, he states, there are similar institutions, are remarkable for the number of illegitimate births. In Vienna forty-seven per cent. of all the children born being bastards.

Were such institutions everywhere within reach, the family relation would be broken up, because parents could not support their own children at home and bear the enormous tax required to support the children in the hospitals.

ART. IV.—USURY LAWS.

SEVERAL of the States have abolished usury laws, and a strong tendency is evinced in all the States to follow their example. Not a single essayist or legislator, who has written or spoken on the subject, seems to have the remotest idea of what interest or usury is, or what is the character of the consequences arising from the legal enforcement of contracts to pay interest, however exorbitant the rate.

No lawyer, legislator, or judge of *our day*, ever dreamed

that a promise to pay interest was a promise without a *consideration* to sustain it. The reader who will follow us, must prepare to soar far above the narrow quibbles, artificial reasons, and shallow technicalities of the law. We propose to elevate him into the region of pure reason, true philosophy, and revealed religion. We believe no English or American lawyer ever had an idea of the meaning of the term *consideration*, which they so often employ. It is exactly and fully defined by Jesus Christ, and by him only. "Thou shalt do unto others, as thou wouldst that they should do unto you." That is, we ought to bear equal burdens, endure equal labor for others, that we require of them. Hence, Moses forbid all interest-taking in the dealing of the Jews with one another. The injunction of Christ extends to dealings with all persons whatsoever.

Human labor is the measure of value, and when none of that is given, or proposed to be given, there can be no valuable consideration. Capital is accumulated human labor in value, but interest represents no human labor, nor does the use of money or of anything else (not consumed in the use) represent human labor. The contract to pay interest is not only void under the law of Christ, but is equally void under the common and civil law rule, "that a *valuable* consideration is necessary to sustain a promise or contract," and that without it, it is, "*nudum pactum ex quo non oritur actio*."

Interest is the tax which capital *exploitates* from labor. Capital *commands* labor—pays it nothing, unless where a part of capital itself is exchanged for labor. If I make ten thousand dollars by my labor; stop work, and gradually spend my capital for other people's labor, or the products of other people's labor, I obey the Scripture injunction, and live according to the law of our land; for I exchange the results of my labor for the products of other people's labor. I now give value for value, as the law requires, and "Do unto others as I would they should do unto me," as the Scripture requires.

But when I lend my ten thousand out, keep the principal intact, and live upon the \$600 of interest, I give nothing to others in return for what I procure from them. I live wholly on other people's labor, without laboring in return. I violate the injunction of Christ, and I violate the spirit of the common law. I command labor like a master, but do not protect, take care of, govern, and provide for my laborers like a master. I LIVE BY EXPLOITATION! (See the first three chapters of "Can-

nibals All." From the writers on political economy the character of "*value*" will be best understood.)

Were we to stop here, we should have written a purely agrarian argument; an argument tending to the overthrow of the whole institution of separate private property, and the establishment of communism in its stead.

The socialists do stop here; and seeing the monstrous tyranny, oppression, and exaction often exercised by capital on private property, propose to abolish it altogether.

The power of taxation belonging to capital, its command over skill and labor, are the means, and the only means, by which civilization is originated, is sustained, and kept in progress; the only incentives to accumulation; the only insurance office of society. The luxury and superfluity of the wealthy, their hoarded and garnered provisions, are the granaries of Egypt that supply the poor in time of famine. We should all be savages, if capital did not apply the lash of hunger to poverty, and require the simple poor to produce superabundance of the necessaries of life; and the skilful, artistic, and professional poor, to fabricate the elegancies and luxuries of life. Savages enjoy the whole fruits of their labor, yet, for want of the lash of capital, or the lash of the master, are poorer than our negroes—nay, poorer than the white laborers of Europe. Capital, by commanding and taxing labor, exercises a necessary part in the government of society. It is but a form of slavery: the best form to stimulate skill into exercise, competition, and improvement; while domestic slavery answers but for common, simple laborers.

But neither masters, nor capitalists, should be permitted to be too cruel, oppressive, or exacting. Law should permit and enforce contracts, for reasonable rent, profits and interest; should prohibit and punish the unreasonable. Experience will teach what is, in general, a fair rate of interest. Rural tenantry should be slaves, for law cannot ascertain the reasonable rate of rent, and in the absence of law, landlord's exact such heavy rents as to starve free tenantry. Nature, domestic affection, and self-interest, suffice to guard the interests of the slave. He is sure to be (in the general) well treated, because he is part of his master's family, and part of his property.

The proposal to enforce contracts for interest, however enormous, arises from the let-alone doctrine of political economy, which teaches that all human merit consists in successful competition, and in taking advantage of the poor, the weak,

and the unfortunate part of mankind, and that all human prosperity results from the War of the Wits. It is the business, the sole business of government to *protect the weak*.

Political economy, and anti-usury law legislators, propose to hold the weak while the strong rob them.

Yes, Mr. Editor, call it one of our paradoxes if you please—but the proposition to repeal all laws against usury, is a proposition that government shall help the rich, the fortunate, the astute, to fleece the poor, the unlucky, and the weak-minded.

For Southern men to propose such a measure is monstrous; for the only philosophical defence of *domestic* slavery is, that the ordinary dominion, exactions, or *exploitation* of capital, induces a worse form of *slavery*. But the men who propose this measure in effect assert that the *exploitation* of capital, if it extend, Shylock like, to the "pound of flesh," to the last dollar, should be encouraged and enforced.

Moderate interest, moderate rents, and moderate profits, which just suffice to keep industry and competition alive, to encourage accumulation and providence for the future, and to advance civilization, are no violation of the scripture rule. When our fellow-man, by the use of his capital, compels us to labor for such purposes, we cannot complain that he is not doing as he would be done by, unless we think it better to be an idle savage than a civilized laborer.

The legal maxim, that a *valuable* consideration is necessary to sustain a contract, is, like all legal maxims, but partially true. Philosophy and law cannot get along together, while the Bible is the best test of philosophy.

In conclusion, we have merely to say, that he only is the true friend of property, who would restrict its power within reasonable and tolerable limits; he its worst enemy, who would aid it in enforcing monstrous exactions, which end in begetting social revolutions and in destroying that property, whose rights it was proposed to extend. The history of Europe for the last century is pregnant with bloody examples to deter us from such a course. Capital, by its undue exactions, begets socialism; that proposes to destroy capital. There are no socialists, no agrarians, no enemies of property at the South. None will arise, unless we make capital a scourge of oppression, instead of a mild stimulant to industry.

ART. V.—MODERN AGRICULTURE.*

"In nova fert animus mutatus dicere formas corpora."—*Ovid*.

Now, Mr. Reader, we are going to try to serve you up a dish of philosophy, and don't complain of us for surfeiting you with such indigestible intellectual food; for in this instance, at least, we prepare the repast set before you at the "special instance and request" of the Editor. When he furnishes tough viands, we have not the culinary skill to elaborate for you tender dishes.

The work before us deals only with philosophy in its most recondite, subtle, and abstruse forms. Prejudiced as we are against all philosophy, and especially against agricultural philosophy, we have seldom been so pleased, fascinated and absorbed, as while reading this volume. The author cautiously, ingeniously, and gradually carries us along with him, convincing us step by step, that every fact, every proposition, every deduction, and every theory, which he states or propounds, is true. We, however skeptical, before laying down the book, became almost a convert to philosophical farming and agricultural chemistry. We feel that it is true—that it is all true! Yet a lingering doubt remains, and as deliberation cools the mind, we begin to doubt (though it be all truth) whether it be all *of the truth*—whether "there be not more things in heaven and earth than he e'er dreamed of in his philosophy"—whether it be not defective (like all systems of moral or medical philosophy) in analyzing, detecting, exposing, and explaining but a part, instead of the whole of the facts on which a theory should be erected? If so—if there be in the soil, in the climate, in the season, in the plants, in the atmosphere, and in the manures, thousands of minute, subtle, delicate substances, elements, causes, or agencies, which no analysis can detect, and therefore no philosophy can enumerate, weigh, balance, and generalize, is not a system founded on such a partial knowledge of facts more calculated to mislead than to guide aright? In the hands of men of much genius and of little experience, such books always do more harm than good. Peas and philosophy may get along tolerably together with the cautious, experienced farmer, who cultivates the peas a great deal and pays little attention to the

* *Letters on Modern Agriculture*. By BARON VON LEIBIG. New-York, John Wiley, 1859.

philosophy; but in the hands of a bold, dashing man of genius like Mr. Jefferson, the "philosophy" always smothers "the peas."

We cannot tell what is a right action without knowing all the attendant circumstances, and therefore cannot prescribe universal, unbending rules for human conduct. This difficulty stands in the way of a moral philosophy. The physician cannot prescribe for a patient from a mere knowledge of the name of his disease, and of its general character, for the age, idiosyncrasy, habits of life, &c., of the patient, the stage of the disease, the climate in which he lives, the peculiar type of the diseases of the season, and many other minute and subtle causes, control the effects of the remedies to be administered. Seeing this, the doctors have had the good sense to give up, in a great measure, the nosological practice which treated diseases according to their names, and adopted the pathological system, which watches the symptoms, the existing phenomena, and attacks those symptoms and phenomena, regardless of nosological nomenclature. Now, what the farmers want is a system of agricultural pathology, which shall not abjure philosophy, but teach men how and when to employ it—teach them that it is equally dangerous to trust too much to theory, or too much to experience. But part of the secrets of nature and the ways of Providence are known either to the philosopher or to the practical man. Each of them is too apt to rely on his peculiar kind of knowledge. Each should recollect that the warning, "A Paul may plant and an Apollos water, but God alone can give the increase," is not a mere figure of speech, but a great practical truth, disregard of which will, in the long run, involve the farmer in ruin. No one can tell what to-morrow may bring forth. Crosses and afflictions will come, droughts and floods, and hundreds of diseases and blights, will occasionally cut short the crop. Neither philosophy nor experience can foresee such misfortunes, account for them, prevent them, nor remedy them. General rules in agriculture are all that philosophy or experience can teach. Exact and universal truth is known only to God.

How strange are the analogies between the moral, animal, and vegetable world! Each is governed by opposing and duly-balanced forces. There is nothing good in either which in excess does not become evil. The moralist, the physician, and the farmer, must alike avoid panaceas; and yet the besetting sin of mankind is to try to simplify all things, and reduce

them to a few general rules. What are poisons when unduly employed, or given in large doses, becomes invaluable medicines when used on proper occasions and in minute quantities. Manures are but the medicines of plants, which become poisons when improperly administered.

Man's passions, affections, emotions, sympathies, appetites, tastes, feelings, &c., are the opposing and concurrent forces which sustain his moral life. They are all good and useful when properly balanced, noxious when too weak or too strong. It is the business of the moral philosopher to encourage the growth of those passions and faculties which are too feebly developed, and to check those that are running to excess; in fine, to watch moral symptoms and preserve a proper balance, he too should be a pathologist, always endeavoring to approximate the true, never presumptuously expecting to attain it. Man's moral nature is more various, complex, and difficult of comprehension, than animal or vegetable nature; but complex as it is, it is our duty to make laws to punish its grosser aberrations, and to write systems of morals to expound and enforce its most delicate duties. Our physical being is not half so simple and intelligible as that of plants. "We are wonderfully and fearfully formed." No anatomist can thoroughly dissect our frames, no physician detect the thousand causes of our health or our sickness. Yet the study and the practice of medicine and surgery should not be given up in despair. Because all diseases cannot be cured, is no reason why we should attempt to heal none. Because the whole truth of medical science is not attainable, does not justify us in rejecting the science altogether.

Agricultural philosophy, which treats of the vegetable kingdom, a world far less various and complex than either the moral or animal world, may hope to attain nearer to certainty and to greater usefulness, than moral or medical philosophy. Those who deride the former, will find far more reason to be skeptical of the latter.

But, at least, all men are philosophers, and those most dogmatical who are least profound. The old woman, with her "yarbs" and simples, will lecture by the hour on the causes and cures of diseases, and offer to furnish you remedies, ascertained by her little experience, which, she assures you, are universal specifics. She has her system, her theory, her philosophy, deduced from the generalization of a few facts. The regular physician builds up his theory by the same process.

His system is founded on millions of facts, observed by hundreds of thousands of wise men for two thousand years past. He is more doubtful, more modest, less dogmatical, than our old woman, because he is wiser than she.

Every well-to-do farmer, with his walking cane, thick gloves, and broad-brimmed hat, who has succeeded in making a dozen good crops, will, merely from his own observation and experience, most oracularly lay down for you the whole theory and practice of agriculture—for all times, all seasons, all soils, all crops, and all climates. He, too, is a philosopher, a Sir Oracle, with none of the infirmities of a Solomon, or a Newton, who grew less confident as they grew more learned; and who, at last, viewing at a distance the mighty field of unexplored knowledge before them, confessed in despair they knew nothing. Our farmer has no such weaknesses: he is sure he knows everything on every subject; and his success in money-making inclines half his neighbors to the same opinion.

Give us Baron Von Liebig's philosophy in preference, which deduces its theories from the learning and experience of two thousand years past. The latter will often be wrong; the former always wrong, because the exact facts on which his theory is founded will never recur:—the same field, with the same elements of soil, and with the same seasons and the same crops, will never be in cultivation again.

The doctor who, without *experience of his own*, practises merely from the book, will kill half his patients. The farmer who relies merely on book knowledge will lose his crops. The moralist who attempts to go like the bear straight-forward through life, under the guidance of moral rules, deduced from books on ethics, regardless of attending circumstances, will be in continual collision with his fellow-men; and like another "Philosopher Square," will find that his unbending moral rules unfit him for society, and involve him in unintentional wrongdoing. Each man must acquire his own experience, and can neither beg, buy, nor borrow it from others. This self-experience is, however, a far safer guide when combined with book knowledge, than when aided only by the crude theories of the practical, but ignorant.

From what precedes we deduce a conclusion of vast importance to mankind, and one which we believe is new—to wit: "That no philosophical system of morals, of medicine, or of agriculture can be true, because all the facts from which a true theory must be deduced can never be known to man.

Yet, as the theories of the learned rest on the observation of a vast number of facts, they are nearer truth than those of the ignorant, which are deduced from the knowledge of a very few facts."

Our author gives us a pleasing and beautiful theory of the perpetual youthfulness of the earth, our common parent. He shows how nothing can be wasted, nothing can decay, grow older, be lost or destroyed. A perpetual round of change and of apparent destruction, preserves everything unchanged, fresh, youthful, and stationary. The world is a great theatre of metamorphosis, that tells only of "forms changed into new bodies." So far as the human mind can understand or discover, the elements which compose our bodies are as indestructible and eternal as our souls. They neither decay, grow older, nor cease to exist. The theory is at first agreeable, but as the immensity of the field of contemplation opens before us, pain succeeds to pleasure, and the mind staggers and recoils from the vain effort to penetrate its mysteries, and to comprehend its magnitude. In his sixth letter he says:

"The quantity of nourishment in the air compared with its mass is very small. If all the carbonic acid and ammonia dispersed throughout the atmosphere were collected in one stratum around the earth, and possessed the same density as at the surface of the sea, the layer of carbonic acid would be a little more than eight feet high, and that of ammonia less than a quarter of an inch. Both are absorbed by plants, and the quantity of these gases in the atmosphere consequently diminishes."

"Were the whole surface of the earth a continuous meadow, from each hectare (two and a half acres) of which 100 cwt. of hay was yearly reaped, these plants would in twenty-one or twenty-two years exhaust the whole of the carbonic acid in the air, and the whole living creation would at the same time come to an end. The air would no longer support plants, that is, would no longer furnish them with an indispensable condition of life."

"We know that careful provision is made for the continued duration of organic life. Men and animals live on plants. All organized beings have but a passing and comparatively short-lived existence. In the vital process of animals the food which nourishes them is transformed into its original form, and the same changes take place with plants and the bodies of all animals after death. Their combustible elements reassume the form of carbonic acid and ammonia. Both of these substances are gaseous, and return to the atmospheric sea, to serve once more for the formation and nourishment of a new generation."

"We thus see that the duration of organic life, in reference to the combustible elements forming the frame of plants and animals, is intimately connected with the return of these conditions. The perpetual round of change, which the Creator has traced out for them, may to a limited extent be influenced by man, but it goes on without him."

"Whenever food, in the form of corn and other produce abounds, then men and animals will be found to consume it, and then, in fulfilling the urgent natural law of self-preservation, continuously reconvert the food that supports them into its original elements."

"The atmosphere is never at rest; even in the absence of every breeze, it is

in continual ascending and descending motion. The food that gives it up to plants at one spot, is immediately replaced from another—from ever-flowing sources."

The most valuable and interesting parts of the work are those in which he treats of the spoliation system of agriculture. Here he brings the results of scientific analysis to the aid of common sense and everyday experience. All practical men know that every crop removed from the land exhausts it to some extent—that you must put back on the land in the form of manure as much as you take from it in crops. Analysis of the soil and of the grain crop shows, that in removing the grain we carry off elements of fertility that cannot be restored by manuring with the fodder and straw alone. Some equivalent for the loss by the grain must be returned to the land. In a manufacturing country, with numerous small towns and a dense country population, it is easy to preserve, and even to increase, the fertility of the soil. In such a country all the crops are consumed at home, and the manure arising from them near at hand to be restored to the fields. This restoration would preserve their original fertility. The manure arising from the refuse of various manufactures, and that derived from the atmosphere, would go to *increase* their fertility.

England is happily situated in this respect. She imports and consumes more than two hundred millions of dollars worth of agricultural products annually, which becomes an annual addition to the fertility of her soil. But what *she* gains the countries which export their agricultural products lose; and *we* are chief among the losers. We live by shipping off and selling annually part of our lands—for to part with the elements that constitute the fertility of the soil, is in effect to part with the land itself.

The great political economist Say (with singular inconsistency) maintains this same doctrine. He and Adam Smith abound in more absurdities and contradictions than any men who "*per fas aut nefas*" ever got the name of philosophers. The protectionist and the free-trader will find in them equal authority for their doctrines. See what this free-trader says against his own philosophy :

"There are many of the provinces of France that are miserable enough at present, yet want nothing but towns to bring them into high cultivation. Their situation would indeed be hopeless if we were to adopt the system of that class of economists which recommends the purchase of manufactures from foreign countries with the raw produce of domestic agriculture."

All true! but strange doctrine from the free-trader, Jean Baptiste Say. We of the South until recently have neglected all interests but that of agriculture, and thereby exhausted our lands and impoverished our country. Of late years a strong reaction has taken place: cities and towns are arising and flourishing, manufactures springing into existence, education better attended to, our people kept at home by the growing attractions of home, more of our crops consumed at home, and manures imported to restore the loss of fertility in our soil, occasioned by an unavoidable export of a large agricultural surplus.

The BALANCE OF MANURE is the true balance of Trade, and the great secret of national growth, wealth, prosperity, and strength! State governments are now active in advancing all industrial interests. State protection is the order of the day. In this new departure which the South has taken, this REVIEW has ably and laboriously led the way. Federal protection, a protective tariff, would but rivet our chains, and continue our dependence. We must take care of ourselves.

Motives stronger than national wealth now combine to urge the South forward in her new policy. Honor and independence require that she should produce, or be capable at a moment's warning to produce, within herself, all the comforts and necessities of life. Assailed by England and the North, she should be prepared in an emergency to live without trade with either. The reader will find the doctrines which we advocate better expressed by our author than by anything we can add. His reasoning is clear, close, and consecutive. His style lucid, concise, nervous, fervid, and eloquent. In truth, as an author and philosopher, he is the equal of any man of the age. At page 143, he writes:

"In the produce of his fields, the farmer sells in reality his lands; he sells in his crops certain elements of the atmosphere that are constantly being replaced from that inexorable store, and certain constituents of the soil that are his property, and which have served to form out of the atmospheric elements the body of the plant, of which they themselves constitute component parts. In *altogether* alienating the crops of his fields, he deprives the land of the conditions for their reproduction. A system of farming, based upon such principles, justly deserves to be branded as a system of spoliation. Had all the constituents of the soil, carried off from the field in the products sold, been, year after year, or rotation after rotation, returned to the soil, the latter would have preserved its fertility to the fullest extent; the grain of the farmer would indeed have been reduced by the repurchase of the alienated constituents of the soil, but it would thereby have been rendered permanent.

"The constituents of the soil are the farmer's capital; the elements of food supplied by the atmosphere, the interest of this capital; by means of the former he produces the latter. By selling the produce of his farm he alienates a por-

tion of his capital and its interest ; in returning 'to the land the constituents of the soil removed in the crops he simply restores his capital to the field. * * * It is not the land itself that constitutes the farmer's wealth, but it is in the constituents of the soil, which serve for the nutrition of plants, that this wealth truly consists.

"The deplorable effects of the spoliation system, are nowhere more striking than in America, where the early colonists in Canada, in the State of New-York, in Pennsylvania, Virginia, Maryland, etc., found tracts of land, which for many years, by simply ploughing and sowing, yielded a succession of abundant wheat and tobacco harvests ; no falling off in the weight or quality of the crops, reminded the farmer of the necessity of restoring to the lands the constituents of the soil carried away in the produce.

"We all know what has become of those fields. In less than two generations, though originally so teeming with fertility, they are turned into deserts, and in many districts brought to a state of such absolute exhaustion, that even now, after having lain fallow for more than a hundred years, they will not yield a remunerative crop of a cereal plant."

There is no part of his work more interesting than his Twelfth Letter, in which he gives an account of Roman agriculture, with quotations from many Roman authors on the subject. We simply refer the reader to this part of the book, not having time or space for extracts. Speaking of the loss of manures occasioned by the immense consumption of grain by the ancient city of Rome, (which is supposed to have had in the time of Adrian a population of three millions), he says :

"In the same way the sewers of the immense metropolis of the Ancient World engulfed in the course of centuries the prosperity of the Roman peasant ; and when the fields of the latter would no longer yield the means of feeding her population, those same sewers devoured the wealth of Sicily, Sardinia, and the fertile lands on the coast of Africa.

"The fertility of the land has remained unimpaired for centuries in such parts only where an agricultural population dwells crowded together on a comparatively small area, and where the tradesmen and craftsmen inhabiting the small towns thinly scattered over that area, till their own little plots of ground with the assistance of their journeymen."

The result of his theory is simply this : that we must restore to the soil the elements of fertility abstracted by the exported crops. This we may do more cheaply by the purchase of guano, lime, and other marine and mineral manures, and by the ploughing in of green crops, than by purchasing the sewerage of distant cities where our crops have been consumed. The South should encourage home consumption, by building up towns, villages, manufactures, etc., at home. This will keep part of her manure at home. But she must have an agricultural surplus for export, and to supply this exhaustion of her soil, must purchase guano, lime, etc., and raise and plough in green crops.

ART. VI.—SOUTH CAROLINA—A COLONY AND STATE.

[Some months since, in noticing the address of Mr. Trescot before the Historical Society of South Carolina, we expressed the wish to extract a few passages from it, for the benefit of our readers. A subsequent examination has satisfied us that it is one of those carefully prepared, able, and elaborate documents which can be studied everywhere with advantage, and which ought to take a place among those which it is our aim to collect from every source for permanent preservation. The original department of the REVIEW is sufficiently extended in its scope and character to warrant us occasionally in occupying a few pages in this manner. The oration was originally published in the *Charleston Mercury*, from which we copy it.]—Ed.

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN: However political philosophers may disagree as to the respective merits of a consolidated or a federal government—however commentators on the Constitution may differ as to the leading idea of its provisions and the shape into which its founders expected it to develop, this much is certain, that now States have become the great factors by which nearly all of our results are accomplished, that State pride, State influence, State enterprise, as distinguished from the action of our central congressional government, are the means by which, and the channels through which, the far larger and more important part of our daily life is conducted.

If an American be asked abroad, of what country are you, his first impulse is to answer, I am a New-Yorker, a Virginian, a Massachusetts man, or a Carolinian, as the case may be. Whatever his pride in his nationality, his home instincts and affections are bounded by State lines. And as the English Queen said, that when she was dead they would find "Calais" graven in her heart, so in every American heart there is written the name of the locality, obscure, hidden away from the eyes of historians and geographers, in the nook of some great mountain range, in the cove of some vast river, in the rich valley of some empire State, but the spot still around which all that is truly his life revolves; where the governor's review made the event of his schoolboy days; where judges, holding the State commission, first impressed him with the majesty of law; where his first vote was cast for member of the State Legislature; where the tax for the State road or the State capitol was warmly discussed by his elders when they met at the village post-office or gathered around the dinner table; the spot, in short, where local interests, acting on local affections, introduced him from boyhood into a sphere of higher activity, and taught him first both his duties and his privileges as a citizen.

And this strong State influence governs wider interests. Has the President an important office to fill, he must select the State before he can scrutinize the fitness of the man—for New-York, and Virginia, and Pennsylvania, and Ohio, must have appointments of such

and such dignity. Let any individual Senator show ever so great ability, if he ceases to be the expression of his State, he is powerless for good. So that really, though the central government has immense patronage, it cannot use it except under State confirmation; for example after example in our political history has proven that, powerful as is the government at Washington, it never has made, and it never can make, any man strong enough to fight against his own State—while the cordial support of any State, the smallest in the Confederation, can invest even an ordinary man with almost measureless importance. A curious illustration of the mode in which this State sentiment not only controls the national policy but divides the national glory, may be found in the history of the late Mexican war. Every one must have observed how jealously the surplus of national fame was, so to speak, distributed among the States; how the public interest in the several States concentrated upon the achievements, not so much of the army, as of the Kentucky regiment, and of the Mississippi regiment, and the Palmetto regiment; how at the close of the war, the general national reputation was shared out in small parcels to the host of volunteers who scattered homeward, each to contribute his mite to his State treasury and to become the hero of his local newspaper.

One of the consequences of this predominating State influence, taken in connection with the fact that most of the original thirteen States had independent colonial existence before the Revolution, has been, that the attention and interest of our people have been more attracted to their State histories than to the record of their federal life. But while this condition of things ought long since to have produced elaborate State histories, the sphere of State action has been so domestic, and under our constitution the great national events which form the usual staple of history have been so entirely within the province of our federal government, that it is impossible to impart to the records of any State that broad and general interest which history demands. For example, the public opinion of any one State might be decisive in a crisis of public affairs, and yet nobody but the citizens of the State would feel any direct interest in the details of the State struggle, embracing, as they would, the political history of men utterly unknown beyond their cities and counties. And as in our confederacy every State has a private as well as a public life, the State historian is compelled either to confine himself to the resulting influence of the State, which can be generally summed up in a paragraph, or by dwelling upon local interests and local worthies, to contract his narrative to a scope as narrow in comparison to general history, as is the domestic life of a great man to the larger sphere of his public achievement.

There is another and very important limitation to the scope of State histories; and that is, that while the great colonial divisions of the country have been sub-divided into many States, the original

colonies had each but one centre from which radiated their separate histories, and thus the interest of several States is in great measure confined to that one State which contains their old centre of civilization. Thus, the settlement of Plymouth and Jamestown might, in a very general sense, be considered as including the essential history of the English colonization of this country, and the two might, in a broad analysis, be considered as historical types. In this sense the States which have gradually and only very recently been developed from the territorial embryo into representative existence, can scarcely be said to have any history at all. Ohio, Indiana, Wisconsin, and Iowa, have been settled so regularly, so entirely in accordance with the established, normal principles of our growth, that the events of their history possess no more individuality than any sum selected as the example of an arithmetical rule.

Difficult, therefore, as a State history must always be, from the character of its material and the necessary but honest prejudices which belong to it, there is always a preliminary question to be answered before it can even be undertaken—a question of paramount interest to a society which, like ours, professes for its object the cultivation and illustration of State history—and that is: Has our State a history to be illustrated? I propose then, to-night to consider, however briefly and imperfectly, whether South Carolina can claim an historical place in the Union; and if so, upon what elements of character and upon what achievement that claim rests.

When I ask gravely whether South Carolina has a history, I do not of course mean whether there are interesting passages in the story of her colonization—whether the events of her colonial life, the deeds and men of her revolutionary period, the policy and speeches of her statesmen in more recent times, have not extended their fame beyond her own narrow limits, and become part or parcel of our national history. Almost every State in our confederacy contains some famous spot, or has given to the country some famous man. Bunker Hill is in Massachusetts, Independence Hall in Pennsylvania, Lake Champlain in Vermont, Saratoga in New-York, and New-Orleans in Louisiana. These places have all been the scenes of great events, and you cannot separate the spot from the achievements. So obscure villages and old farmsteads and deserted homes are scattered all over the land, which have been consecrated as the birth-places of the great men who have lived and died among us. But this alone cannot make a State historical in any broad sense. What I wish to know is, whether South Carolina has made any special contribution to the general civilization of the Union—whether she has given to the past any distinctive element which has modified the grand result; and if so, whether she has done her work, or whether her character is a living principle, still active for good.

I trust that I approach the subject with the truthful gravity which alone becomes it. I cannot, indeed I would not, forget that I

am a son of Carolina, born to a large inheritance of honorable fame, surrounded and sustained by high and noble memories; that far behind me, guarding the spotless shield of my native State, stand the monumental effigies of great men made perfect;* that it is my privilege to walk in the light of glorious examples. I cannot forget that, as the years have gone by, into her bosom have been gathered the venerable men and the pure women whose lips and lives have taught me to be true, and just, and brave; and that to me her very soil is holy ground. Forget! who of us can forget—who of us but feels that nothing, neither time, nor trouble, nor the dim eye, nor the dull ear, can separate us from the love of South Carolina—can shut us out from the solemn music of the wind in her pine forests, the glory of the sunlight on her broad marshes, the glow of the great ocean as it clasps her beautiful coasts—all those sights and sounds with which she nursed the sentiment of our youth, refreshed the vigor of our manhood, and with which she will soothe the hours of that long twilight when we will all creep gladly to her bosom, there to rest forever!

But this strong State affection, although pure and earnest, although right even when it is unreasoning, is not enough. Indeed, this very enthusiasm has betrayed us into more than one extravagance, and of late South Carolina has been wounded in the house of her friends. More than once has the calm self-respect of the old Carolina breeding been caricatured by the consequential insolence of a vulgar imitation. Forced, perhaps by circumstances, to think of ourselves more than was profitable, we have learned to talk about ourselves much more than was needful. We seem, somehow, to have become uncertain of our old position, and boast of our birthright in language which we never inherited from our fathers. It cannot be amiss then to look back gravely, not only upon what we have been, but why we have been, and thus realize the advice of the poet—advice as practical in its effect as it is lofty in its expression:

"Love thou thy land with love far brought
From out the storied past, and used
Within the present, but transfused
Through future time, by power of thought."

The history of South Carolina, like that of all the original States, divides itself into three periods: its settlement, its colonial government, and its existence as a State since the Revolution.

The various attempts made to settle Carolina before the first permanent English colony was established, possess, I think, very little direct interest for us. Picturesque passages of life they furnish. The

* 'Twas the old gallant English blood,
And many a shadowy ancestor
Guarding his sculptured arms afar,
That day in memory stood.
[Miss. Hows's "Words for the Hour," p. 38.]

old steel-clad warriors, the naked Indians, the majestic solitary rivers, the stillness of the great rich forests, are all beautiful and true enough for poetry or art. But they have all gone far away from us. Like Rebaud's Column, with its graceful wreaths of laurel and native jessamine, what was fair has faded, and what was strong has crumbled; and the very land on which that famous memorial stood, upon whichever of the bright islands of Broad river it may be, is more valued, and very naturally, by the honest gentleman who owns it, for the yield of cotton to its acres, than for the brave and gentle memories which shadow its grass, and still, perhaps, murmur among its palmettoes.

But with the English settlement our history begins. The contrast between the character of the settlement of the northern and southern colonies was so marked, that it has become universally recognized, and we hear constantly of the antithesis between the Puritan and the Cavalier. Now it is true that a great contrast does exist; and, between Massachusetts and Virginia, Plymouth and Jamestown, Captain Smith and Elder Brewster, this antithesis may be accurate in its rather extravagant expression. Not so, however, with regard to Carolina. If I read history correctly, there was very little of the Cavalier element in the settlement of this State; and as I cannot help thinking that we indulge in no little cant on this subject, thus unintentionally obscuring and diminishing some of the most honorable and powerful elements of our native growth and character, I will endeavor to analyze the character of that settlement. In so doing, I shall compare Carolina with Virginia, rather than with New England; for the contrast between the early Puritan settlement and our own is broad and obvious, while the differences between Virginia and Carolina, although very strong, are not so patent.

In point of age Virginia had the advantage of nearly a century over Carolina, and a century which embraced great revolutions in human thought. The earliest settlement of Virginia was undertaken at a time when the old monarchical spirit was strong; when loyalty to the person of the sovereign was the crowning virtue in the character of the perfect gentleman; a time when the love of wild adventure was an ardent stimulant to bold and dangerous undertaking; when the discovery and settlement of vast and vague empires in the New World were still looked to by grave statesmen as balances of the overgrown and detested Spanish domination; and the adventurers went forth in the veritable spirit of knight-errantry, to bring back the homage of mysterious tribes of men, the rich spoils of mighty galleons, the fruits and flowers of lands of marvellous beauty, all to be laid as trophies at the feet of the Virgin Queen. And the heroes of this early history are brave and courtly, the very pick of England's chivalry—men like Raleigh and Gilbert, and that pure and noble gentleman, Sir Richard Grenville. Then, again, Virginia was an important colony at the time of the great rebellion, stood by King

Charles I. in the true Cavalier spirit, and when the fight was over, made equal terms with Cromwell.

Carolina, on the contrary, was not settled until a much later day. The spirit of chivalry which became utterly extinct after the death of Queen Elizabeth, the last exploit of which was the destruction of the Spanish Armada, infused no romance in our settlement. Even the genuine Cavalier spirit had died out, for there was no Carolina in the days of the great rebellion. No British vessel drooped her colors in any Carolina harbor in mournful intelligence of the death of brothers and friends at Nasely or Marston Moor; the sound of the fatal blow which struck so heavily upon the loyal heart of England, woke no shuddering echo in our yet untrodden forests. It was not until England had passed through all these trials—not until Cromwell had done his work and gone to his judgment—not until Charles II. had returned to wonder where were the rebels who had slain his father, and to find all England, not Cavalier, but clamorous for royal bounty, that our settlement was commenced. And the founders of our history are not brave and gallant knights, but wary politicians; the slow and cautious Monk, the prudent Clarendon, the shrewd and sagacious Shaftesbury. There was no romance in their work—no Virgin Queen to play chivalry before; but they looked to large acres, steady hard-working colonists, quit-rents, imposts, money. In other and shorter words, the settlement of Virginia was undertaken as an achievement—the settlement of Carolina was begun as an investment.

In the next place the early settlers brought with them the theory of 1688—the same in principle which beheaded Charles I., exiled James II., and developed afterward into our own Revolution. Now this theory is the direct reverse in its principles and consequences of all that belongs to the Cavalier spirit, which is nothing more nor less than the feudal system, dying out as an institution, but still lingering as a sentiment. The truth is, the people of Carolina were whigs—old-fashioned English whigs. All their acts and their words, from the earliest differences between the people and the proprietary government, through the Revolution, down to the latest State paper in our history, prove direct descent from that stock. Our very constitutional abstractions, for which we have become so famous, from then until now, are but reproductions of the spirit and style of the Convention of 1689; and even Mr. Calhoun's mental pedigree can be traced back, link by link, to Lord Somers and old Sergeant Maynard.

Independent, too, of this theory, the very fact that the proprietary government stood between our early settlers and the crown demanding their allegiance, but in no way attracting their loyalty, made resistance so much the more easy; and in consequence no colony exhibited an earlier, more resolute or sturdier independence, a clearer intention, and, I may fairly add, a higher ability, to govern itself.

And the early occupation of the settlers in Carolina afforded no room for artificial distinction; no scope for the exercise of a sentimental loyalty. A very few hundred men, in a malarious climate, living in log cabins, with Indians on one side and Spaniards on the other, soon learned what each man was really worth, and no man's life was a sinecure then. We are very apt to be misled by names, and we cannot help attaching to such titles as governor and council and parliament rather grand and imposing associations. But the work which these great officers of state had to do, and to their credit be it said, which they did, was very homely. For instance, in November, 1671, before the governor and council came Mr. Henry Hughes, and, in the words of the record—

"Made his complaint on behalf of our sovereign Lord the King, against Thomas Screeman, gentleman, for that the said Thomas Screeman, upon the — of October, 1671, at Charles Towne, in this province, did feloniously take and carry away from the said Henry Hughes, one Turkey Cock, of the price of ten pence of lawful English money; upon consideration whereof, and the evidence then and there brought in, the Grand Council adjudged the said Screeman to be guilty."

And notwithstanding the "gentleman" written after his name, and which was always scrupulously entered upon the record, did order—

"That the said Screeman shall be stript naked to his waiste, and receive nine lashes [a whip for that use provided] upon his naked back, by the hands of Joseph Oldyss, who is adjudged by the Grand Council to be stript naked to his waiste to performe the same; for that [what a subtlety of retributive justice!] the said Joseph Oldyss, knowing of the said felonious act after it was committed, aided the said Screeman and endeavoured to conceal the offence.

"After which, that is to say, the — day of November, Cap'n Lieut. Robert Donne, being brought before the Grand Council for comforting, aiding and assisting the said Screeman to commit the said fact, the said Cap'n Lieut. Donne having fully submitted himself to be tried by the Grand Council, upon consideration of the evidences brought in, &c., &c., it is adjudged that the said Cap'n Lieut. Donne is guilty in manner and forme as is afore disclosed against him. It is therefore ordered and ordayned by the said Grand Council, that the said Cap'n Lieut. Donne shall appeare on the — of December, at the head of the company whereof he is Cap'n Lieut., with his sword on, and there shall have his sword taken from him by the Marshall, and he cashiered from having any further command in the said company; and in the meantime, to give security for his good behaviour and appearance at the place aforesaid, or else remayn and be in the Marshall's custody."

And yet the next year, 1672, we find both the prosecutor Hughes and the cashiered captain-lieutenant elected members of parliament. I might select from the records a score of such illustrations of the daily life of the colony, showing how very absurd it would be to apply to the habits of this scant and hard-worked colony, words and phrases significant of the relations and distinctions that belonged to the complicated civilization of the old country. Of course, as the settlement grew stronger and richer, as its prospect became clearer and more cheering, the action of the English laws which they had brought with them, and the direct legislation of the proprietors,

assimilated their habit of life and government more and more nearly to English institutions; but their rude experience at the outset of their colonial life had impressed upon them too deeply ever to be eradicated, a sense of personal independence and a consciousness of personal equality.

And before the colony had attained a fixed and matured character, which it did not until about 1719, the period of the abolition of the proprietary government, this feeling was strengthened by the influence of the Huguenot immigration. For in this respect again, a very marked difference exists between the settlements of Virginia and Carolina. Virginia was essentially an English settlement, with old English prejudices, habits and institutions. In it the old framework of English society was more closely repeated than in any other colony; and the predominance of the landed interest simply as land-owning—the hereditary influence of the primogeniture law—the supremacy of the established church—the ramification of large and powerful family connections, were more strongly marked than in any other portion of the country. Even if the same habits and institutions were growing up gradually here, the French immigration was so large, became so thoroughly incorporated with the resident population, and was so wholesome and vigorous in its influence, that it modified very considerably the mind and temper of our people, and by the combination produced a third character, which differed widely from both its components, and developed a decided and vigorous life of its own. And this influence was all the stronger, because it was at first resisted. For a long time the English settlers persisted in considering the French immigrants as aliens, refused them the right of representation, denied the validity of their marriages, and restricted as narrowly as possible the free exercise of their political privileges. These difficulties it took time and temper to settle; but in their progress they worked out their own solution in the most natural way, and left as their result a character in which were fused, in admirable proportion, the strong will, the enterprise patient but bold, the rough truthfulness of the English mind, with the enthusiasm and quick facility and graceful courtesy of the French temper. I think, therefore, that to talk about the character of Carolina society as the result of the cavalier element, or, indeed, to ascribe its peculiarities to other than native influences, is a grave error.

1. Because the settlement of the State was not effected by men who represented the aristocratic classes of the Old World. And in saying this, I do not mean that our early settlers were men of base condition; far from it. They were nearly all men of an honest degree of social respectability, many of them sprung from a class accustomed to the refinements and distinctions of an old and accomplished society; and more than one, as he sat at midday under the shadow of unfamiliar trees, or looked at night up to strange stars, travelled back in memory to the household oaks of the old manorial hall, and was strengthened

for to-morrow's work as he thought of the knightly effigy in some gray old country church. But in this new country they were all emphatically new men; and if gentle blood ran in their veins, were content to prove the height of its source by the vigor of its current.

2. The political theories of the time which the early English settlers brought with them, were liberal in spirit, and calculated to foster and develop republican institutions; and

3. The early social development of the State, whatever its English prejudices, was modified and influenced to a great extent by the character of the French immigrants.

We must look elsewhere, then, for the cause to which must be attributed our peculiar civilization: and that cause is to be found in the great underlying fact of our history—a fact which I cannot state more distinctly than in the words of Mr. Bancroft: "Of the original thirteen States, South Carolina alone was, from its cradle, essentially a planting State, with slave labor."

This fact has had a direct, incalculable, and, in some respects, anomalous influence upon our social and political character. Both the English and the French settlers brought with them to this State a strong passion for land, and had either our circumstances or climate made us a free State, we would still have been an agricultural one, though with very different characteristics. But the possession of slave labor developed several traits which do not belong generally to a population exclusively agricultural. First: A striking individuality: for it made the agriculturist a director of labor rather than a laborer; and as the control of the master over the slave was practically almost absolute, and each man's management was the result of his own judgment and subject to no other authority, each man became a small monarch on his own estate. This absolute independence created naturally great tenacity of rights, and a watchful and resentful jealousy of any outside interference, a jealousy encouraged both by public opinion and legislation, on account of the necessity of sustaining the master's authority as the guarantee of the safety of society. But this very jealousy and independence created, as its necessary complement, a remarkable and sensitive regard for the rights of others. The same authority which every master claimed within his own limits, he respected scrupulously in his neighbor; and men soon learned that great and valuable principle, the very essence of true constitutional liberty, without which every democracy is but a monstrous tyranny of numbers—that within the sphere of his legal responsibility, every man is the unquestioned and absolute master of his own actions. And this isolated independence, this scrupulous consideration for the rights of others, springing from the tenacity of each man to his own rights, created and fostered a sensitive courtesy in the conduct of men to each other. Despotism is, I know, very apt to give a harsh and peremptory habit, but that very habit rests upon the universally recognized difference between superiors

and inferiors. The right to command an inferior is a guarantee of respect to an equal, and the tone in which you speak to a slave of necessity changes when you address a freeman. The habit of command, where you have a right to obedience, develops necessarily the habit of considerate courtesy where there is no right to command; and the very existence in society of a large body of inferiors, made men both jealous and cautious as to the manner which was to indicate their relations to each other. The presence of an inferior laboring class, to whom the law refused the right of testifying, had also a marked effect upon the general truthfulness of the freeman. To tell the truth was one of the privileges of the white man. To lie was considered the natural refuge of the weak and dependent slave—as a habit, it was identified with the inferior race; and from his earliest youth the Carolina boy was taught, as Xenophon says of the Persians, “to ride a horse, to hurl a javelin, and to speak the truth.”

While the institution of slavery in itself exerted this happy influence upon the temper and character of the people, the very material upon which it was employed served to unite the community in one common interest. Rice, indigo, and cotton, were all great staples, and the last and most important, unlike the cereal crops of other agricultural countries, requiring to be put into the hands of the manufacturer before it could be converted into general use, and becoming, as its culture extended, the basis of the exchange of the whole country. Add to this the fact that Carolina possessed, in Charleston, an admirable seaport, which enabled her to develop the commercial element which gave a peculiar character to her chief staple, and it is easy to see how the institution of slavery acted directly on all the interests of society, and made of all varieties of our industrial life one great copartnership.

Beside this, the fact that, even during the existence of the primogeniture law, slaves who were at one time considered as real property,* were made personal, and thus exempted from the action of that law, and that, after the Revolution, the law itself was abolished, prevented the formation and growth of very great estates. The slave property of the State was thus being perpetually broken into small properties, to be used by individual energy and skill to recommence new fortunes; and the character of this labor was such that, to be owned with profit, it had to be worked with judgment. Unlike the free tenantry of other agricultural countries, the landlord could not trust to the individual exertion of the tenant to repay him, but was forced to be the laborious and intelligent manager of his own labor. This

* The authority for the statement that slaves were ever real property in this State, is the account of the conference between Arthur Middleton, when Lieut. Governor, and the Spanish deputy from St. Augustine, in reference to certain complaints of the one government against the other.

“Mr. Middleton declared, he looked on such injurious orders as a breach of national honor and faith, especially as negroes were real property, such as houses and lands, in Carolina.”—Hewitt, in Carroll's Collection, vol. 1, p. 270, 271.

necessity, coupled with the constant exercise of those powers with which the law intrusted him, in order to the police management of a slaveholding community, made of the proprietors of labor an active, energetic, and hard-working class; and work, hard work, became the characteristic of what, in any other country, would have been a class privileged to govern and enjoy.

But slavery might have done all this, and only ended by creating a strong, haughty, and powerful aristocracy. Fortunately for us it has been able to do much more; it has realized the dream of political philosophers; it has been the great leveller, not by dragging down, but by raising up; it has made a society of equals, by elevating all citizens of the State to the condition of a privileged class. For, from the circumstances which I have described, the early settlers of the State were entitled to avoid the recognition of the class distinctions of the old world; they were literally free and equal. When slavery then became established among them, it could not be limited, and the whole South became slaveholders.

"Nor is there," says the historian Hewitt, writing of a period more than a century ago, "the smallest reason to expect that manufactures will be encouraged in Carolina while landed property can be obtained on such easy terms. The cooper, the carpenter, the bricklayer, the ship-builder, and every other artificer and tradesman, after having labored for a few years at their respective employments and purchased a few negroes, commonly retreat to the country and settle tracts of uncultivated land. . . . Even the merchant becomes weary of attending the store and risking his stock on the stormy sea, or in the hands of men where it is often exposed to equal hazards, and therefore collects it as soon as possible, and settles a plantation."

And thus it happened that, by the time South Carolina became an independent State, her whole society had been both elevated and united. The highest type of character which that society possessed—independent, brave, courteous, truthful, and laborious, was the representative of no class in her community, but was the common property of all her citizens. And the institution which fostered this high and noble character, being the common basis of society, not only elevated it as a whole, but knit together all its members in their various conditions into one harmonious whole, infusing throughout the body of her citizens a manly and mutual self-respect; a quick, intelligent sympathy, which, strengthening from that day to this, has made us, as a community, a signal and singular example of common interest, mutual attachment, and united energy.

From the early settlement of the colony, through the many differences which led to the abolition of the proprietary government, from this period to the era of the Revolution, these elements were at work moulding and perfecting the Carolina character, giving to our early history examples which we cannot surpass, but which we have fortunately been able to follow—men like Gov. Robert Johnson and William Bull, strong in their opinions, gentle in their authority, resolute, courteous, able—the force and beauty of whose characters are

best learned from the warm and generous admiration of those whom they opposed.

Hewitt, describing our community just before the Revolution, says :

"In respect of rank all men regarded their neighbor as their equal, and a noble spirit of benevolence pervaded the society. In point of industry, the town was like a bee-hive, and there were none that reaped not advantage, more or less, from the flourishing state of trade and commerce. Pride and ambition had not crept into this community, but the province was fast advancing to that state of power and opulence when some distinctions among men necessarily take place."

But just then came the Revolution to draw our society yet closer together; to bring out, in all their strength, the peculiar excellences of our character; to temper that character by suffering, and to crown it with the glory of successful and heroic achievement. But during the Revolution, the strong individuality of the Carolina character impressed itself upon the struggle, and developed into that unique partisan warfare, so bold in its conception, so brilliant in its performance, so triumphant in its result. And I cannot refer to this glorious portion of our history without acknowledging the debt which I think the State owes to one of her most distinguished sons, for the fidelity with which he has preserved its memory, the vigor and beauty with which he has painted its most stirring scenes, and kept alive in fiction the portraits of its most famous heroes. I consider Mr. Simms's Partisan Novels as an invaluable contribution to Carolina history.

I am young enough to speak from experience, and I am sure that many a boy who is now eagerly following his heroes through the swamps of the Santee, or along the banks of the Ashley, will find his local attachment strengthened and widened into affection for his State, and in the time to come will do her ready and unselfish service, stimulated by the heroic traditions to which the imagination of the novelist has imparted a dramatic and living reality.

But even during the passionate struggle of the Revolution, the Carolina character never lost its balance. Its independence was illustrated by the boldness, even unto blood, with which men took opposite sides; and in the exultation of complete success, it never ceased to exercise that generous forbearance, that wise and conscientious appreciation of opposite opinions and conflicting sentiment which has always been one of its peculiar excellences; and it was Francis Marion, the type of all that is heroic in our State character, who called upon the legislature to respect the rights of the vanquished, and to save the tories from the retributive justice of the Confiscation act.

From that period onward, the same high and glorious justice has marked the conduct of the State and the character of our public men. In the Continental Congress—in the Constitutional Convention—always, by all men—has the same tribute been borne to the Carolina character—its uniform courtesy, its strong tenacity of its

own opinions, but the same careful and conscientious regard of the opinions and feelings of others; its claim, quiet but firm, to be treated with its full measure of respectful consideration, but in return always bearing itself to others as recognized and respected equals. It came down to us from the Revolution to latter days. Indeed, I know no more perfect picture of its varied excellences than that admirable character drawn by an eminent statesman of John Gaillard, for near thirty years a Senator from this State, and for at least half of that time the presiding officer of the Senate. Sprung from the old Huguenot stock—a large slaveholder, an eminent jurist, reared in the midst of all those influences to which we attribute the peculiarities of our character, not of that pre-eminent intellect which takes a few great men out of their local connection, and gives them, as it were, the freedom of the world—he was exactly the type of the people he represented. Of him Mr. Benton says:

“In the language of Mr. Macon, he seemed born for that station. Urbane in his manners, amiable in temper, scrupulously impartial, attentive to his duties, exemplary patience, perfect knowledge of the rules, quick and clear discernment, uniting absolute firmness of purpose with the greatest gentleness of manners—setting young senators right with a delicacy and amenity which spared the confusion of a mistake—preserving order, not by authority of rules, but by the graces of deportment; such were the qualifications which commended him to the presidency of the Senate, and which facilitated the transaction of business while preserving the decorum of the body. There was probably not an instance of disorder or a disagreeable scene during his long-continued presidency. He classed democratically in politics, but was as much the favorite of one side of the House as of the other, and that in the high party times of the war with Great Britain, which so much exasperated party spirit.

Well, indeed, may we look back with grateful pride upon this period of our history. Trained by the long, varied, political experience of her colonial revolutionary trials, the State had contributed largely to the wise and sober councils which organized the national government, under whose beneficent administration she hoped to reap the reward of first sacrifices. And, when that government commenced its new and difficult life, she served it with honorable fidelity. In the party struggles which characterized the first thirty years of its existence, she adhered, with unchanging firmness, to the political creed which she professed, but her public life was marked by a manly truthfulness, a conscientious justice, a simple and generous courtesy, which has become a tradition in our political history. At home she was eminently prosperous—her commerce expanded, her agriculture, stimulated by the possession of a great and necessary staple, developed prodigiously in extent and wonderfully in science—the graces of her character flourished in rich luxuriance, and the culture, refinement, and hospitality of her people, and especially of her old and honored metropolis, added an exquisite charm to the graver virtues of her character. And this fullness of an elevated and happy life found its highest expression in the lives of her chosen and distinguished statesmen. She was represented in the Senate by the eminent man to

whom I have just referred, and by others in nothing less than equal. In the House of Representatives, her youthful intellect found such exponents as Calhoun and Cheves; while both her character and intellect found its noblest illustration in one whose name is identified with all that is pure and lovely, and of good report in our national life. In 1811, William Lowndes entered Congress, and for ten years his calm, sagacious mind tempered the wisdom of our national councils. Gently and softly, like the pure and wholesome light, his influence spread beyond his native State, until it lit the remotest corners of this great Union. Concerned only to do right, willing and anxious to believe all men as pure as himself, his sweet and earnest nature disarmed the fiercest opposition, and softened the bitterest prejudice. Active and foremost at a period of great political excitement, when not personal vanity but public zeal might naturally tempt a statesman of his great gifts to gather power unto himself, and to triumph in his cause, he earned the noblest eulogy which I think can be paid to an American statesman—that he was the mediator rather than the leader of the House. In contact with the quiet and strength of his intellect, men of more fiery energy grew calm, and men of weaker resolution grew strong. I need not dwell upon his career; it is familiar to us all. The great purpose of his life was duty, and it was his rare felicity, a privilege given in the angry strife of human ambition to but a few lofty and exceptional natures, to do his duty in charity with all men. He died in 1822, soon after the close of the contest as to the admission of Missouri—a contest which he had labored earnestly to compose, and he died thinking that not without success he had striven to restore peace to the land he so dearly loved. He was taken away in the very meridian of his fame and usefulness, as if such a pure and noble spirit was unfit for the fierce and fanatic struggle which, from that day to this, has grown deeper and deadlier. As he had lived, so he died. All through life he had accepted high responsibilities as God's appointment, and when at last God called him from this narrow and perplexed field to far wider and clearer duties, he bowed his head meekly, and with Christian serenity, received death's summons to this great promotion:

"For doubtless unto him was given
A life that bears immortal fruit,
In the great offices which suit
The full grown energies of Heaven."

In selecting such men as examples, as the highest illustrations of our life and history—men whose wide, happy influence sprang rather from their character than their intellect—men in whom the possession of great mental power did not strike the public with absorbing force, only because great intellect was so in harmony with other traits that it simply perfected the symmetry of the whole character—I feel, to use Mr. Lowndes's own eloquent language, "To such men we can do no honor: all records of the present must be lost; history

must be a fable or a blank, or their fame is secure." But they are types of character which I have not the heart to say we have lost, but which, I fear, we are in great danger of losing.

In rapidly and imperfectly sketching the old Carolina character, I have not dwelt upon our courage—for I am sure we are as brave to-day as when Col. Barnwell led our colonial ancestors through the dreary pine forests of North Carolina to fight the Indians, or when Sumter, and Marion, and Horry, at the head of the untrained and unpaid gentlemen of South Carolina, crossed swords with Tarleton's cavalry. I have not dwelt upon our intellect, for the proofs of its ready and sagacious activity are even now found in every department of the national service. I have not dwelt upon the minor virtues of our refinement and hospitality, for the grace of our early breeding still lingers with us, and, like those beautiful gardens which attract and charm every stranger in our old city, its welcome and familiar perfume scents the atmosphere of our most crowded and business life. But the necessities of the long, bitter, unworthy struggle into which our political life has been forced; the angry and irritating controversies in the midst of which a whole generation has grown up; the constant, of necessity, egotistical vindication of ourselves, compelled, perhaps, by perpetual and ungenerous disparagement; all this has fretted the calm old temper, irritated that once famous courtesy, and unbalanced that generous impartiality which once made our pride as it did our strength. And in the miserable crimination and recrimination of the present day, the boastful vindication and the base attack, I cannot help thinking of those days not so far removed, when South Carolina stood among her sister States with no defiance on her brow, no hatred in her heart—admired, honored, loved—and when, through the whole length and breadth of this vast Union, no hand could have been found to do her violence, no voice to offer her insult.

While the institution of slavery, modified by the circumstances of our early settlement, thus shaped our social habits and character, it exerted a direct influence upon our political constitution. The fact that the citizens of the State owned the labor of the State, in and by itself was calculated to give a more decidedly aristocratic character to our political system than was at all consistent with the strong republican tendencies which all the facts of their history had impressed upon our people, and the effort to reconcile the arbitrary principles of this institution with the democratic sympathies of the people has developed in our State a very peculiar political sentiment. We have established a conservative government and administered it on democratic principles. We have had since our settlement no less than five distinct governments, and from the fundamental constitutions of John Locke to the constitution of 1790, under which we now live, the object of each amended constitution, may, I think, be fairly stated in the language of the preamble to those famous articles,

to have been "to avoid erecting a numerous democracy." We have always recognized the right of the people to govern, but have carefully guarded the rights of minorities by requiring that government to be exercised through formal and constitutional agencies. We have adopted the principle of universal suffrage, but limited within the narrowest compass popular elections, by intrusting the most important to the representative discretion of the legislature. We have given unusual weight and influence to property in arranging the base of our representation, and while we base the representation upon property, the choice of the representative is given to the people in the widest liberty. In fine, everywhere we see two principles checking each other's extreme action.

A comparison of Locke's constitution with our present system of government, will afford some curious illustrations of the manner in which we have, so to speak, democratized very aristocratic institutions. Professor Rivers, in his *History of South Carolina*, after giving an account of the manner in which the legislative body was constituted under those articles, says, very correctly: "The landgraves and caciques were created by the lords proprietors, and consequently the parliament, composed in this manner, would have given a majority to the aristocracy, until nine counties should have been formed, when the representatives of the people would have obtained a majority of one vote." Now this, it is clear, was a very liberal provision; for the rapid increase of wealth and population in the colony, creating an ever-increasing number of counties, would soon have made the popular representation all powerful. But I refer to it to point out the striking analogy between the essential principle of this scheme, and the theory on which our present system of representation is based. For just as soon as the counties became numerous, the landgraves and caciques, putting aside their hereditary character, would have been neither more nor less than our parish senators—that is to say, a certain portion of the State represented by them would, on account of its wealth in land and negroes, have been entitled to more than its proportional share of representatives. In fact, the whole scheme was the more liberal; for, sitting in one house, this aristocracy would soon have found themselves in a perpetual and powerless minority. In our present system we have thus retained the baronies but abolished the barons—destroyed the hereditary character which belonged only to the person, but installed the principle in an independent senate.

Again, one of the most curious provisions of Locke's constitutions is this:

"It shall be a base and vile thing to plead for money or reward: nor shall any one (except he be near kinsman, not further off than cousin-german to the party concerned) be permitted to plead another man's cause, till, before the judge is open court, he hath taken an oath that he doth not plead for money or reward: nor hath nor will receive, nor hath indirectly bargained, with the party whose cause he is going to plead, for money or any other reward, for pleading his cause."

The object of this provision is manifest. It was to make of pleading before the courts of justice a patrician privilege, and thus secure to the governing class the immense influence which attaches to the administration of the law. And the result would have been to have made of the profession a class within a class, invested with even higher powers and more extensive influence than the body to which it belonged. It is very curious, then, to see how, by another road, the profession has reached the same end. For I think I can safely say that, in no other agricultural country in the world, has the profession of the law so paramount and powerful an influence as in this State. From the days of Nicholas Trott and Sir Egerton Leigh, to the present day, the politics of the State, both domestic and federal, has been intrusted to the hands of the lawyers. The great civilians and many of the soldiers of our Revolutionary period, and almost all of our leading statesmen of more recent times, have been educated to and distinguished at the bar. This is owing partly to the fact that, with the institution of slavery, we also had the common law of England, and as it had to be applied and adapted to new and unusual occurrences, not only for a long time our judicial decisions had a legislative character, but in the business of legislation, we needed men familiar with both the principles and practice of that law. It was owing also in some degree to the fact, that a great deal of slave law had to be administered by the slave-owner himself, that in the condition of the country, resulting from the employment of slave labor, a great many duties requiring a certain extent of legal knowledge, had to be intrusted to the body of citizens, who thus learned to refer to legal opinions and decisions, and were prepared to appreciate the character and uses of legal ability. And with truth it can be said, that seldom has any country furnished a class of men who have so nobly vindicated their fitness for high trust, than that long line of venerable judges and famous advocates to whom the private and public interests have been confided. Called, by public opinion, to exercise their abilities, not merely professionally, but in every department of State service, the intellect of our bar has been trained by a wider and more liberal culture than is usual with the profession in older and more artificial civilizations, and our great advocates have been thus raised above the technical influence of an acute but narrow calling, and converted into high public officers, to whose hands the justice of the country, in its widest extent, has been intrusted. Nobly have they discharged that trust, and given to their native State examples of consummate ability, profound and varied learning, spotless integrity—tempering our public and private differences with the spirit of calm considerate justice, of wise and judicious compromise. Thus, from the earliest days of our history until now—in your presence, Mr. President, I can only venture on a general truth, to which all who hear me will find the fitting application—furnishing pure and able and true men, whose laborious and honored lives have attracted public confidence, won public affection, and impersonated to the popular sense the high-

est attributes of that most perfect and God-like conception of the human intellect—legal justice.

In referring to these famous constitutions of Locke, I will venture to make a suggestion, which, although perhaps a digression, naturally occurs to me here; and that is, that they may have been in some degree misunderstood. It may be a too refined and fanciful theory, but I cannot help thinking that they assume a very different character if they are considered as the form of a government for a free white race based on a population of slaves, than they do as usually regarded. For instance, take this provision:

"In every seignory, barony, and manor, all leet men shall be under the jurisdiction of their respective lords of the seignory, barony, or manor, without appeal from him. Nor shall any leet man or leet woman have liberty to go off the land of their particular lord, and live anywhere else without license obtained from their lord under hand and seal.

"All the children of leet men shall be leet men, and so to all generations."

Apply this to the settlers of Carolina, to free Englishmen anywhere in John Locke's time, and nothing can be more absurd or revolting. Could a philosopher like Locke have so presumptuously defied the great truth of human progress, so misread the history of his own country, as to declare of the Anglo-Saxon race anywhere, that "all the children of leet men shall be leet men, and so to all generations"? But if we suppose that he looked forward to the application of these constitutions to a country peopled by two races—one superior, the other inferior; one white, the other black; one master, the other slave—is it not very possible that this was an ingenious provision by which he hoped in time to attach the laborer to the soil, to convert slavery into serfdom?

I cannot enter now into a full analysis of our successive constitutions. In the remarks, necessarily very brief and desultory, which I have now made, it has been my object to show that these three elements: 1. The mixed character of our early settlers; 2. The common law habit of thought, and the political theories of 1688, peculiar to our early English settlement; 3. The institution of slavery—have combined to form the social and political character of the State. That our social character was strongly marked, individual, independent, brave, just and courteous. That our political constitution was a compromise between an aristocratic institution and a democratic sentiment, which has resulted in a form of State government at once conservative and liberal—a constitution under which our material interests have prospered. Our history has been illustrated by great men, and our whole community have in quiet and safety, for many generations, led an honorable, prosperous and happy life. And that this mixed character, both social and political, has been a peculiar and influential element in the general history of the country. Of course I do not arrogate to Carolina the sole possession of this character or influence. They belong to the whole South. They are the

elements of southern civilization ; and all that I have meant to claim is, that owing to our early settlement, the germs of these influences were first developed here, thus making us an historical type of the great southern section of the Union. Such a claim does no injustice to the history of other States, and is based upon no presumptuous assumption of our own superiority.

I hope I need make no apology for the rather political color of this discourse, because what is history to us was politics to our forefathers, and the life and character of a State can scarcely be treated except politically. The special tenor of my remarks has been directed, I frankly admit, by what I consider an evident and an unfortunate truth ; and that is, that the last few years have developed in South Carolina two schools of opinion, which, starting from the same point, have wandered off into extreme and opposite errors. On the one side we have honest and true men, goaded by the irritating controversies of the day into fierce impatience, replying to unjust and unscrupulous denunciation, by a rude and unnatural arrogance that offends friends as well as foes, who meet one extreme and disorganizing policy by another as violent and unlawful, for whom a petulant suspicion has created a restless isolation that strives to conceal its sense of weakness by a noisy boastfulness of strength—who, exaggerating many of the very best features of our character, present to the world a distorted picture of old Carolina. For if slavery, that institution in defence of which they stand, with all the courage if not the temper of their fathers, has done anything for us, it has made us a grave, earnest, resolute, just people. Look at the great men in whom the State lives, the Rutledges and Pinckneys of the Revolution ; men of later day, like Gaillard and Sumter, and Judge Smith and Lowndes, and Calhoun and Hayne, and Cheves and Drayton, and so many others, not less honored, who have lived and died in the home service of the State. How strong, and yet how quiet ; calm, resolute men ; just and generous and firm ; men who governed others because they governed themselves ; men who, in the very tempest of party strife,

" Would love the gleams of good that broke
From either side. Nor veil their eyes ;
And if some dreadful need should rise,
Would strike and firmly, and one stroke."

While on the other side, we have men equally honest, who, wearied and disgusted with these extravagancies, would rashly destroy those peculiarities of our State character and constitution, which are liable to such mischievous exaggeration ; who would eradicate our old State pride ; destroy the old conservative character of our State politics ; strip us bare of all the glorious achievements of the past, and drive us, destitute and dishonored, into the fit companionship of a vagabond and demoralized democracy ; a democracy which, in the language of one of the boldest and honestest thinkers in the country—

"Has modified our State constitutions, in a democratic sense; has destroyed the independence of the judiciary, by rendering the judges elective by the people for short terms of service; and re-eligible; tampered with the noble systems of the common law, assailed the principle of vested rights, struck at the very principle of constitutional government, by asserting for the people in caucus the rights which they can have only in convention legally assembled; and removed, as far as possible, every obstacle to the immediate expression in law of the will or caprice of the majority for the time; in a word, which has done everything it could to render our government an absolute democracy, as incompatible with liberty as absolute monarchy itself."

Between these two extremes Carolina stands now as she has always done, and I know no surer way to maintain her in her old and honored place, than to make her sons familiar with her past history, and this society can do the State incalculable service by fostering the study of her history and supplying the material for thorough and impartial knowledge. I have endeavored to show that our character was formed by elements at work in the very earliest periods of our history, and in the events of our history will be found the growth and expansion of that character. In the volume of proceedings which we have already published, will be found a catalogue of the documents relating to our colonial history, existing in the British State offices—a catalogue which we owe, in great part, to the energetic and intelligent industry of Professor Rivers, of Columbia. Any one who will run over that catalogue will be struck with the value and extent of the collection, the interesting character of the events to which they relate, and the mass of curious and important information which they would furnish to our history, if procured and published. Indeed, until they are so published, the history of this State cannot be written, and yet it is high time that it should be. We cannot draw strength and knowledge from a purer source than from the words and deeds of those sagacious men who, with time and great trouble, laid the foundations of the State which we so proudly call our own. The task which they began it is ours to carry on through difficulties and dangers not greater but different. The institution which, with them, was an experiment, has become the corner-stone of our social and political life, and it has become our duty to prove to a skeptical and hostile world that it is compatible with the great interests, the high ends, the purifying and elevating influences of a Christian civilization. Surely it is no light duty, no trifling responsibility. It has to be borne in trial, and doubt, and difficulty; but the end is certain. If we are indeed carrying out God's plans, the hour of triumph will come. It may not be to-day or to-morrow; our children's children may have to take up our controversy, but what then? Among those wonderful facts which astronomy has taught us—facts so vast that they seem almost beyond the measure of our finite intelligence—there is one which, sublime in itself, has always seemed to me to furnish a moral analogy even still more impressive. It is that the light of the great lustrous stars shining serenely and steadily above us, has taken uncounted

years to reach us, and that there are still other orbs, the glory of whose brightness has not yet travelled the infinite distances of space, but that in the fullness of time they will shine in their appointed places. And so with nations. God's time is not as our time, and we cannot tell how late or how soon a great national duty fitly discharged, will shine as an example to the generations of men; but the time will come when its light shall have traversed the long years of darkness, and then it will stand in pure and full effulgence, a perpetual and guiding light, fixed, eternal in the heavens.

NOTE.—Since writing the above address, I have seen in Bishop Meade's "*Old Churches and Old Families of Virginia*," a passage in reference to the society of Virginia, containing some opinions similar to and some different from those which I have expressed, and I would refer any reader interested in examining the subject himself to those volumes.

ART. VII.—THE UPPER COUNTRY OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

HISTORICAL REMINISCENCES OF GREENVILLE DISTRICT, SOUTH CAROLINA, ETC.

MANY important events and incidents are connected with the early settlement of Greenville district, and others of a later period, which would be interesting to our warm friends of the REVIEW.

The first settlements in the Greenville District were made about the commencement of the Revolutionary war, but there are several citizens now living to tell who were the first settlers, and the respective places at which they settled, and there are but few among the inhabitants who form the connecting link between the present and *the troublous times that tried men's souls*.

Greenville District was a portion of the Washington Judicial District, and the Circuit Courts were held at Pickensville.

In the year 1786, an act was passed by the Legislature of South Carolina, for the establishment of a county and county courts in the new ceded lands on the north side of the Saluda river, by the name of Greenville.

Henry Mitchell Wood, Esq., Larkin Tarrant, Esq., John Thomas, Jr., Esq., and James Harrison Barrett, Esq., were appointed commissioners to assemble and consult on the most suitable and convenient place for holding said court for the county aforesaid, and the place selected by these commissioners not far from the west end of Paria Mountain, and near where the Reedy River Baptist church now stands, and called Pleasantburgh, was granted in the year 1795.

The inhabitants of Greenville, however, were dissatisfied with that selection, and appointed a new board of commissioners, with full power, either to alter the place at present fixed by law for building a court-house and other public buildings for the said county of Greenville, or to confirm the same, as they, or a majority of them, shall think expedient and necessary. The commissioners were Rev. Mr.

James Tarrant, John McBeth, Esq., Peter Sarter, Esq., Isaac Green, Esq., Paul Abner, Esq., Samuel Walker, Esq., William Anderson, Esq., Robert Nelson, Esq., Martin Adams, Esq., William Goodlett, Esq., Josiah Foster, Esq., Silas Williams, Esq., James Kilgore, Esq., Thomas Townsend, Esq., and William Choice, Esq., and selected the present site of Greenville Court-House.

The oldest case on file in the clerk's office, which was tried in the County Court for Greenville, dates November, 1793. The oldest docket of the court is the issue, made out of three sheets of unruled paper, for April term, 1793. There are forty-two cases on the docket. The names of the lawyers entered as attorneys for plaintiffs and defendants are, Thompson, Shaw, Trefevant, Tarrant, Tate, Ramsey, and Pickens. Samuel Earle, Esq., was the clerk of the court. The first census return is that taken by True Benson, Esq., in the year 1800, showing 1,615 families living in the district (or county, as it was then called), and the population 11,501.

A highly respectable citizen, Captain William Young, who emigrated from Virginia to this District about the year 1793, who built the store-house on the Buncombe road, five miles north of Greenville C. H., and who died many years since, once said: "*The people of the Old Dominion at that time regarded the upper part of South Carolina as the garden spot of the South.*"

The most of the first settlers were from Virginia, and many were descended from the *first* families. They found the district covered with walnut, hickory, oak, &c., and the ground carpeted with flowers, and that cane grew in great abundance on every stream, and even on the hills, furnishing ample sustenance for hundreds of cattle. Game of every variety could be found in abundance in the woods, and thousands of fishes sported in the streams and rivulets.

Mr. Hite, a gentleman of great respectability, was one of the first settlers of Greenville District, nine miles from Greenville C. H., on the road leading from the latter to Spartanburgh C. H., where Mr. Thomas Woodruff now lives. Some of the logs of the building in which he resided are still to be seen on the premises. Mr. Hite settled this place several years previous to the Revolution. The whole of Greenville and the upper portion of Spartanburgh District were then in possession of the Cherokee Indians.

About the commencement of the Revolution Mr. Hite and the most of his family were massacred by a band of this savage tribe. David Goodlett, Esq., late of Greenville District, deceased, was stationed at Fort Prince, in the Spartanburgh District, at that time, and was one of the soldiers detailed to pursue the Indians and mete out to them a just retribution for this fiendish act; but when they reached the place, the Indians had fled to the mountains of Pickens District, and had carried with them Mrs. Hite and one of her daughters. The daughter was afterward rescued, but the mother was undoubtedly killed by them in their retreat. The scene of the massacre was most

shocking and revolting to every feeling of humanity. Mr. Hite had espoused the cause of his country, and from this circumstance alone, no doubt, the Indians, who had taken sides with England, were prompted to commit this atrocious deed.

Mr. — Paris, a native of England, and possessed of considerable fortune, settled about the same time that Mr. Hite did, on or near the lot upon which the beautiful residence of Dr. O. B. Irvine now stands, in the town of Greenville. Mr. Paris obtained a grant of land from the English Crown for ten miles square, and within its boundaries embraced the present site of the town. He took sides with the king, and his house was a favorite resort for the tories who resided in the upper portions of Spartanburg and Laurens districts.

The Legislature of South Carolina, after the establishment of our Independence, refused to acknowledge the grant of Mr. Paris as *valid*.

Jacob O'Barrion Hite, a son of Mr. Hite, may justly be numbered among the first victims, sacrificed in our struggle for Independence; and a grateful people should ever hold in kind remembrance his efforts in freedom's cause, and his name should be inscribed upon the imperishable pages of South Carolina's history. Mr. Paris, it is said, had two daughters who had been educated in England, and young Hite was engaged to be married to one of the said daughters; but that a few days before the massacre, above mentioned, the same band of Indians killed, scalped, and mangled him on the waters of Eastatoie, in Pickens District.

Young Jacob O'Barrion Hite had gained considerable influence over several of the Indian chiefs, and he was visiting them at the time he was killed for the purpose of making them *neutrals*, or to incline them to occupy a peaceful position toward the whigs.

The greatest influx of immigration into the District was between the years of 1783 and 1790.

The closing articles of peace were signed by Great Britain and the United States on the 30th of September, 1783, and the latter took her position among the separate and independent powers of the earth. This event shed joy and happiness throughout the length and breadth of the land, and the strong arms were then exerted with energy in felling the forests and in the cultivation of all the arts of peace and civilization.

Under flattering auspices, emigration poured into Greenville District, and its dense and majestic forests were transformed into smiling fields and dotted over with tasteful and stately mansions.

In the early part of the year 1793, Col. John Thomas, Jr., a hero, settled on South Tyger river, about fifteen miles northeast of Greenville C. H. He was a gallant officer in the Revolutionary war, and succeeded to the command of the regiment which was under his father, Col. John Thomas, Sr. He was also one of those brave and

chivalric spirits whose worth and deeds of valor have been suffered to rest with him in the grave; yet, he aided in a great degree in turning the fortunes of war in favor of the side he espoused. Although he was not the leading spirit at the battle of Cowpens, his noble and gallant conduct in that engagement *alone*, entitles his name to a high place on the record of his country's history.

On one of the fairest hill-tops of Greenville District the remains of this hero sleep with but an humble stone, without an inscription of any kind to mark "*his last resting-place*."

The place upon which he settled and was interred, and known as "Prospect Hill," is *now* the property of Judge John Belton O'Neill.

Col. John Thomas, Jr., built a mill on Clear creek, not far from the residence of Wesley Gilreath, Esq., and the creek was crossed below at a ford, which gave the place the name of *Milford*. The neighborhood and post-office have ever since borne that name.

Col. John Thomas, Jr., fought at Musgroves, Cedar Springs, and King's Mountain. He was the 2d ordinary of Greenville District, and filled that office with credit to himself and with satisfaction to the public.

Of the services rendered by Col. John Thomas, Sr., during the Revolutionary war, but little can be said. He was somewhat advanced in life, and resigned his commission before there was much active service in the upper portion of South Carolina.

In 1784 he was appointed Commissioner of Locations, for the sale of land in Greenville, and established the office in his own house.

The first day the office was opened the crowd was so great, and such an eagerness manifested, that the commissioner would not issue but a few warrants until the next day following; hence the exact date, when the land office was opened, is the *20th day of May, 1784*, notwithstanding that most of the oldest land-warrants bear date *21st May, 1784*.

The first plot of land entered on the old location book was surveyed by William Benson, Esq., on the 22d day of May, 1784. The order for the survey was made the day previous.

The plot of land contained 200 acres, situated and lying in the fork of the Middle and South *Saludas* (an Indian name for corn) and was granted to John Earle, Esq. This place is now owned by Dr. — Mays.

The last will and testament of Col. John Thomas, Sr., bears date May, 1811, and was proven in solemn form the 2d day of November, 1815. He had three sons and five daughters.

His son, William D. Thomas, settled a place in the neighborhood of *Milford*, and was buried near his relatives in a graveyard on the plantation of Judge John Belton O'Neill.

His son, Capt. Robert Thomas, was killed at the battle of Mud Lick, in Newberry District, and numbered among the slain as an officer very much beloved and lamented.

Capt. Joseph McJurkin married one of his daughters, Miss Anne Thomas. He was a gallant officer in the Revolution.

Joseph McCool married another, Miss Jean Thomas, and settled the place now owned by John Weaver, Esq., seventeen miles northeast of Greenville C. H., on the road leading to Rutherfordton, North Carolina.

Robert Carter, Esq., married Miss Esther Thomas. Josiah Culverson, Esq., married Miss Martha Thomas. When but a lad he assisted Mrs. Col. John Thomas, Sr., in defending her house from an attack made upon it by a party of tories. The bravery and courage exhibited by Culverson, when a boy, was richly rewarded in after years by the smiles, confidence and affection of Miss Martha Thomas. It has been truly said that

"The meed of the brave
Are the smiles of the fair!"

The reason for having been thus particular in giving an account of the family of Col. John Thomas, Sr., is simply the fact that not only he, but his sons and sons-in-law were active participators in that great struggle which eventuated in the dismemberment of the infant colonies from the mother-country, and in the establishment of a government, which, we trust, *will stand unchanged and uncorrupted throughout ages to come!*

About the years 1783 and 1784 many settlers came simultaneously. Among the early settlers who came from abroad was a Mr. Isaac West, who settled the place whereon Mrs. Elizabeth Hughes now lives. He came from York district, and the place from which he removed was about one mile from King's Mountain. He was an active participator in the Revolutionary war.

His daughter, Mrs. Phoebe Green, mentions among other things that she saw a tory strike him on the head with a sword in his own house. The wound inflicted was very severe, and the room was completely covered with his blood. Mrs. Green was about nine years old when the battle of King's Mountain was fought, and she heard the firing of the small arms and cannon. She saw the wives, sisters and mothers of the soldiers who were wounded in that engagement, bearing them off the next day. The scene is represented by her as truly touching; and in relating it, and in speaking of the gloom and sorrow caused by the death of these brave soldiers, her eyes were moistened with tears.

Mrs. Green gives the following account of an old-fashioned "cotton picking," which is too good to be lost: In those good old-fashioned times when the high and low, the rich and poor, were alike attired in *home-spun*, made by the industrious and ingenious hand of the busy housewife—when split-bottom chairs, even, was a luxury never dreamed of, and a vehicle, other than a Jersey wagon, an ox-cart, or a sled, never contemplated—the neighbors in the various settlements

would meet alternately at each other's house to pick the seed out of the cotton and prepare it for the wheel. These occasions presented a favorable opportunity to "*the young folks*" to show their preference for each other, and was attended with much merriment. After the evening's labors were finished, they would join in a regular old-fashioned Virginia reel, and keep time with flying feet to the delightful strains of music drawn from a gourd banjo. Thus, the hours flew swiftly on until the rising of the morrow's sun. The supper table teemed under the luxurious meat of the bear, deer, and the wild turkey, interspersed invariably with *bacon* and *cabbage*, corn-bread and Irish potatoes.

Mrs. Green regards those days as the happiest of her life, and says that everything in the way of living was plentiful, and all the neighbors were as one family. *What a change has since taken place!*

Mr. Isaac West had for his neighbors when he came to Greenville, Alexander Glenn, Esq., who settled near where the beautiful and tasteful residence of Dr. Randall Croft now stands; David Leicester, Esq., who settled on the plantation of Dr. O. B. Irvine, two miles east of this town; and James Richie, Esq., who lived upon the place now owned by Mrs. Emily Rowland, two miles from Greenville C. H., on the road leading to Rutherfordton, N. C. Solomon West, Esq., his brother, settled at the same time the place owned by and upon which Oliver Phillips, Esq., now lives. After all the children of Isaac West, Esq., had grown up and left him, he removed to Tennessee, where he died.

Captain Isaac Green married Miss Phoebe West (above mentioned) a daughter of Isaac West, Esq., in the year 1790, and settled the place on Mountain Creek now owned by Mrs. Elizabeth Barton, and upon which she lives.

The two prominent facts in the history of the town of Greenville itself may be a matter of interest and be recorded. The town and vicinity was, firstly, owned at one time by Col. Lemuel J. Allston, and secondly, from him purchased by the venerable Vardry McBee, Esq., who, now, at an advanced period of life, retains the possession and superintends personally all his business matters connected with this large property. This gentleman is a native of North Carolina, and descended from the best Revolutionary families of Mecklenburg county. Inheriting but a small fortune from his father, by industry, energy, and perseverance, he has become one of the wealthiest men in the State.

The present population of the town of Greenville and suburbs may be estimated at 3,500, a large number of whom are engaged in mechanical pursuits. It is the seat of several institutions of learning, and is well supplied with churches. The *Furman University*, under the control of the Baptist denomination, was located here in the year 1850, has an able faculty, at the head of which is Rev. Dr. James

C. Furman, a gentleman of elegant learning and distinguished for his piety. About one hundred and fifty students are now in attendance. The University consists of *two different departments* :

1st. Collegiate department, with four professors—P. C. Edwards, C. H. Judson, T. E. Hart, and Rev. J. C. Furman, D. D.

2d. Preparatory department, with one principal and two tutors—Prof. Wm. Royall, principal; and Thomas Hall and John F. Lameau, tutors.

The *Greenville Baptist Female College* is under the presidency of Rev. H. A. Duncan, and under the control of an efficient corps of teachers, and largely patronized by the denomination which established it. It has been in operation about three years. In addition to this, the same denomination has recently inaugurated a *Southern or Baptist Central Theological Seminary*, under the presidency of Rev. J. P. Boyce, D. D., with Rev. Manly Broadus and Williams, as professors, which opened on the 1st of October, 1859, with flattering prospects. The State of South Carolina contributed \$10,000 to his endowment, and the other Southern States will subscribe within a year an equal amount. The buildings of this institution are not yet commenced, but will be as soon as a suitable site is selected. May *their expectations* be fully realized.

The *Baptists* with *laudable zeal* have also built a most beautiful church, in the Grecian style, whose *eminent* pastor, the *Rev. Dr. Richard Furman*, is not only an *eloquent* and *zealous* preacher, but also the *distinguished author* of the "*Pleasures of Piety*."

The *Episcopalians*, the next most numerous congregation in the town, are in possession of a Gothic church-building of some pretension. It is built of brick, with stone dressings, after the English models of the middle ages. The present Rector is our warm friend, the Rev. Mr. T. S. Arthur, of *gentle manners* and *kind disposition*.

The *Presbyterians* have a neat church and a respectable congregation, but are at this time without a pastor.

The *Methodist Church* has been recently repaired by their zealous people, and is at present under the pastoral care of the Rev. Mr. A. F. Mood.

The *press* is ably represented by the *Patriot and Mountaineer*, and the *Southern Enterprise*, two respectable publications, with large circulations (the cheapest newspapers in the South—only one dollar per annum) and able editors. Our friends, Maj. S. D. Goodlett, the associate editor of the first paper, and W. P. Price, Esq., the editor of the latter, have our warmest thanks for the courtesy and attention shown us in preparing this sketch.

Greenville is not only a literary and religious community, but the first inland town in the State.

It numbers among its manufactories the largest coach factory in the southern country, owned by our friends Messrs. Gower, Cox, Markley, and Worthington. They employ now 100 mechan-

ies, and turn out \$80,000 worth of work which is sold in most of the Southern States, and gives universal satisfaction.*

The flouring mills of Vardry McBee, Esq., are situated in this place, where a vast deal of wheat is manufactured into flour.

There are some thirty dry goods and grocery establishments, three boot and shoe stores, four drug stores, four tin stores, two saddle and harness establishments.

Greenville has fifteen lawyers and nine practising physicians.

The cotton manufactories of Greenville District are:

1st. "*The Batesville Factory*," owned by Messrs. Wm. Bates & Co., located in the eastern portion of the district, eleven miles from the court-house, driven by a large overshot water wheel of forty-six feet diameter, has heretofore manufactured yarns, but is putting in about forty looms with twelve hundred spindles, and will manufacture shirtings, osnaburgs, in addition to yarn; produces about five thousand pounds per week, employs about sixty hands, and sells the surplus of its production in New-York.

2d. *The Buena Vista Factory*, located one half mile from the Batesville, has six hundred spindles, makes yarns, produces two thousand pounds per week, and is owned by Messrs. Lester & Sons.

3d. *The Reedy River Factory*, located six miles below Greenville C. H., on Reedy river, owned by Messrs. A. McBee & Co., has about six hundred spindles, makes yarns, and produces about twenty-five thousand pounds per week.

4th. *The Weavers' Factory*, owned by John Weaver, Esq., located fifteen miles north of the court-house, has one hundred and fifty spindles, makes yarns, and produces five hundred pounds per week.

The goods made by all these factories are principally sold in the country around them. The surplus is sent to Northern cities for sale. The cotton is purchased direct from the planters, who, in most cases, deliver it to the manufacturers. The labor is performed by white persons (natives), of whom there is an abundant supply for a large increase in the country. They like the employment and they find their condition very much bettered by the change from their original habits and employments upon farms and rented lands.

* It has been in existence about twenty years; has for several years employed about seventy workmen, and has the most approved machinery for performing the various operations of turning and sawing the lumber into the forms and patterns for wagons and carriages. To those unacquainted with the various modes of working in wood, it is curious to observe the facility with which the rough material is fashioned into shape and usefulness. Here a Blanchard lathe converts the rude spoke into perfect form, and by another machine it is smoothed, and yet another cuts the tenon. The hub is morticed in a few minutes, and the felloes are sawed with accuracy, leaving but little hand-labor to complete the whole. This machinery is all new, having been put up within the past year, and is of the latest and most approved kind. There are a number of other machines in use for sawing, planing, and boring all the material entering into either carriages or wagons, and thereby diminishing the time and labor in their construction.

The vehicles made at this establishment number some three hundred annually, and have long deservedly held a high place in the estimation of the community for neatness in form and durability of construction. This enterprise may be regarded as one of the most successful in the State, and long may it flourish as an evidence of the skill, industry, and perseverance of the proprietors.

There are three hotels: the *Goodlett House*, under the charge of Col. R. P. Goodlett, is the only one to be mentioned, for its elegant and capacious rooms, good fare, and gentlemanly landlord. A most liberal patronage ought to be bestowed upon it. There are also a large number of shops of workmen in almost every branch of industry.

Corn and cotton are the principal products of the district. There are also two paper-mills. Much of the manufacture is finding a market in New-York city.

In the town of Greenville they have two Masonic lodges, one Odd-Fellows' lodge, and a division of Sons of Temperance.

We had almost forgotten to mention that there is now in course of erection a building to be used as a lecture and school room, under the control and patronage of the Presbyterian Church. It is expected to go into operation in February, 1860. Besides the above there are three private schools in operation.

The schools here are all so arranged as to enable the scholar to pursue to the best advantage any particular course which he may select, and to whatever extent he may desire. The classes are also so arranged that while the student is pursuing the studies of a higher class, he may review in a lower class of the same school.

No limit of time is fixed for completing a course of study. The time allotted to each course depends upon the nature and extent of the course, and the diligence and success with which it is pursued.

There are many points of interest connected with both the town and district, which we may have the pleasure of mentioning at a future time.

We beg to close with the stanzas of our friend, Robert McKay, Esq.:

"Then let us *never* slumber—but ONWARD be our word!
Let the music of the plane and the hammer still be heard;
Let not a selfish feeling prompt us in what we do—
But may we always have the good of others too in view."

ART. VIII.—REMARKS IN RELATION TO THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER.

THE present condition of the lower Mississippi, its overflows, the frequent changes in its channel, and the dangers incurred by every rise in its waters, are owing to the inordinate width of the bed of the river and its innumerable sinuosities, islands, &c. Flowing through an alluvial soil, no doubt originally composed of the materials brought down by its own waters, the channel thus formed is easily liable to change. The least irregularity in the banks, or a deepening or shoaling of the bed, causes the current to turn toward one side or the other, and, in its efforts to continue the direction thus obtained, to abrade the bank against which its force is directed. A

bend, once thus begun, becomes by degrees more and more prominent or extended by the abrasion of the concave side of the bed, while the opposite convex bank is at the same time increased by the deposit brought down, and advances in proportion as the concave bank recedes. In this way the curvature continues to increase until it obtains the form similar to that of a pear, leaving only a narrow neck of land between, through which, in time of high water, the river sometimes breaks, thus regulating itself and carrying out the laws of nature, which influence it to seek the shortest and straightest passage to the Gulf of Mexico. Several instances of this kind have occurred in the history of the Mississippi, by which its course toward the Gulf has been rendered shorter and more direct.

Water has a tendency to pursue a straight course, because that presents the least length, and consequently the greatest relative fall. In all rivers, the courses of which are circuitous, the water may be seen, in time of a flood, to leave the channel where either bank is low, and enter it again lower down, by a straighter and shorter course; but when the flood subsides, the water is again confined within its bed, and whatever changes it then undergoes depend on such accidental circumstances as may influence the direction of the current. The changes that take place within the bed of a river result exclusively from the abrasion of the banks.

The valley of the lower Mississippi has been formed of the detritus brought down by the river, which, flowing through a bed with low banks, in time of high water has flooded the country on either side, and there deposited a portion of the immense quantities of sedimentary matter brought down into its channel by its tributaries. Thus covered with the deposits of every flood, the lower valley gradually became more and more elevated until it acquired a permanent and solid character, subject only to occasional overflows in times of extreme high water. The same causes which have created the valley and delta of the lower Mississippi, namely, the immense quantities of sedimentary matter brought down from above, and the high floods, have also led to the elevation of the bottom of the bed of the river, which seems to have kept pace with the elevation and extension of the valley.

The erection of levees for the protection of the cultivated lands from inundation, which levees have been extended along both sides of the river for great distances, has had a tendency to render this elevation of the bed comparatively more progressive, by confining within the channel much of the sedimentary matter that would otherwise have been distributed over the adjacent lands; while these lands, no longer exposed to overflows of the river, and no longer receiving yearly deposits from its waters, have now become stationary in their elevation.

This effort to protect the cultivated lands from floods by the erection of levees, though productive of some temporary benefit, has a

tendency in the end to occasion greater mischief. The progressive elevation of the bed of the river, caused by its inordinate breadth, its numerous sinuosities, islands, &c., renders an increase necessary in the height of the levees, so that a crevasse in them during one of the spring floods is more destructive now than formerly, because it discharges a greater quantity of water with a greater fall, and consequently greater velocity. Besides, the increase of population throughout the great West, along the various tributaries of the Mississippi, the clearing, cultivating, and draining of the lands, facilitate the passage of the water and sedimentary matter or detritus, from the surface of the fields into the creeks and rivers which supply the Mississippi, while the main channel in the lower valley, having its bed filled with obstructions, and having less fall than its tributaries, cannot discharge the detritus as fast as it accumulates, so that the floods must rise higher and gradually become more dangerous.

Along the valley of the lower Mississippi, adjacent to the river, are extensive swamps, lagoons, and low, flat lands, which, as long as the river is left in its present unimproved condition, serve a highly useful purpose. They act as reservoirs or basins to receive the surplus waters of the river in time of a flood, and return them again to the main channel when the flood begins to subside. By means of them the floods are prevented from rising as high as they otherwise would, the duration of low water is diminished, the stage of water in the river is more generally equalized and the change from one extreme to the other rendered less sudden and violent. Besides vast quantities of sedimentary matter brought down by the floods pass into these repositories and are there deposited, which otherwise in the present condition of the river, would only add more rapidly to the elevation of the bottom of its bed. As long as the Mississippi is left unimproved, a double purpose is subserved. By permitting the surplus waters free access to the swamps and lagoons, they act as regulators to the river by checking the rapidity and diminishing the height of its floods; while the deposits left in them by these floods are gradually filling them up, and will finally elevate them so as to render them available for agriculture.

The great lakes at the North, which are the repositories of the drainage of an immense territory, afford the best example of the advantages of such reservoirs in securing a country from the destructive ravages of high floods. Those extensive basins receive the vast accumulations of water resulting from the heavy rains and melting snows of spring, and retain them until they are gradually discharged through the St. Lawrence. But for them, the valley of that river would yearly be swept by destructive floods. These lakes also serve to retain the detritus which is brought down by the tributaries, and thus secure the river from all injurious deposits.

It is true, the swamps and low flat-bottomed lands of Louisiana, filled and covered for a considerable part of the year by the surplus

waters of the Mississippi, are not only useless for any agricultural purpose, but exert an unfavorable influence upon the health of the adjacent country. Protected from overflow by the river, they might be subjected to the labor of the planter, and made profitable for the investment of his capital. But the consequences that would certainly follow, without improving the course of the river, should be considered.

If the surplus water that now flows from the Mississippi in time of a flood into these swamps and lagoons, be confined within the main channel of the river, or rather between the longitudinal levees, the spring floods must necessarily rise to a greater height. This will render necessary an increased elevation of the levees wherever they exist.

From the increased pressure of the water and exposure, these levees will be more subject to crevasses than before; while, from the greater height of the levees, the effects of the crevasses will be more destructive to the adjacent lands. The experience of the last few years has sufficiently proved that as the levees become more elevated, the crevasses are none the less frequent and more destructive. Everything that tends to increase the volume and elevation of the water in the main channel, so long as it is left unimproved, must render them still more so.

The bed of the Mississippi river is rising, while the level of the valley, where it is protected by the levees, is stationary and has ceased to keep pace with it. However slow that rise may be, it is certain that the time must come, if the present system is continued, when the bottom of the bed of the river will be considerable higher. Any reflecting man will, therefore, see that the levee system, notwithstanding the vast expenditure of labor and money necessary to keep it up, and the heavy yearly losses entailed upon the neighboring landed proprietors by inundations, will ultimately reach a point beyond which its further continuance, if practicable at all, can only be maintained at an enormous cost, while no care or precaution can prevent the yearly overflows and consequent devastation.

As a system, therefore, the levees are defective for several reasons. In the first place, they contribute nothing to the improvement of the river—neither making its channel deeper, nor its course straighter, and leaving its navigable condition certainly no better than they found it. In the second place, by affording a temporary protection to the planter, they throw him into a dream of fancied security that prevents him from directing his attention and energy to some more efficient method of improving the river and obtaining permanent security for himself. In the third place, by affording a mere temporary expedient to meet impending evil, they can only postpone a danger which is inevitable, and the coming of which will only be the more ruinous the longer it is delayed.

Louis Hebert, State engineer of Louisiana, in his report to the legislature of that State, dated, Baton Rouge, January 1st, 1856,

says: "In conclusion, let us learn not to interfere with the Mississippi river. We cannot control it. Our presumptuous efforts against it only bring down upon us chastisement."

I cannot agree with this gentleman in the opinion which the above language seems to imply. The condition of the Mississippi is admitted on all hands to be defective, because the advantages which it offers to commerce are far below what the immense volume of water that rolls down its channel ought, and, under skilful and judicious direction, might be made, to possess. The alluvial soil through which it flows affords the finest facilities for accomplishing any change in the channel necessary for securing a proper direction and breadth, while the mighty volume of water discharged places in the hands of a skilful and experienced engineer, a power as effective and as easily controlled for good as for evil. The people of New-Orleans, both merchants and real-estate owners, are deeply interested in the improvement of the river, as are also the landed-proprietors along its banks; and all would be benefited by making the waters of the Mississippi river to flow as fast, and as directly as possible, through a regular bed of a breadth properly adapted to its discharge. The cross-sation of the stream would then be less, and its own action would secure for itself a reduction of the level of its surface.

MOBILE, *October 17, 1859.*

ART. IX.—INDEPENDENCE OF THE FEDERAL JUDICIARY.

ONE of the most important concerns in our system of government is to promote and secure honesty and independence in the Federal Judiciary. In fact, the most important department of our civil government is the Judiciary, which not only has to execute large and weighty trusts in deciding controversies between suitors, but is also charged with the interpretation of the laws, the settlement of constitutional questions, and the determination of our liberties—both civil and political. Indeed, it is not extravagant to say that the fate of our country is involved in the character of the Judiciary, as it restrains the other branches of the government without efficient restraint itself, and adjusts the measure of our liberties without any direct and practicable appeal from its behests. To preserve and guard, therefore, the purity of the Judiciary, to assure its independence, and to chastise, as far as possible, its excesses, are duties of primary and vital importance, and must be so regarded by all who take a patriotic and cordial interest in the conduct of public affairs.

The framers of the Constitution, anxious to take every precaution to secure the qualities of honesty and independence in the judicial office, made the appointment one for life, thus hoping to raise the judge above partisan influences, and to place him beyond the reach of temptations that might otherwise assail him. How these hopes have been fulfilled—on what foundations in reason and human nature

they were reared, it is not now our purpose to inquire. We purpose to treat only of the remedy for whatever malfeasance or tendency to tyranny there may now or ever be on the part of our Federal Judiciary.

While establishing the office of the federal judges for life, the authors of our constitutional law provided but a single remedy for judicial misrule and corruption. This was the amotion of the judge by impeachment. The remedy is given and defined in the following provisions of the Constitution :

ART. II.^a "Sec. 4.—The president, vice-president, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for and conviction of treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors."

ART. I. "Sec. 3.—Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit, under the United States ; but, the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law."

It will be noticed in the first place that the remedy of impeachment is not a full one. It visits only a very inadequate punishment—that of removal from and disqualification to hold office ; nor does it restore the injured party to his rights. At best, the proceeding is a tedious, circumlocutory, and uncertain one—dependent, in a great measure, upon the leisure that Congress may afford from its ordinary public concerns, and requiring sacrifices of time and trouble which few memorialists are able to make, especially as the impeachment is but a single step toward the restitution of their rights.

It is on account of these very shortcomings of the process of impeachment, and the essential difficulties which hamper its exercise, that the remedy should be liberally and freely granted to injured parties. The main proposition which we seek to sustain in this article is, that impeachment being the single and only safeguard which the Constitution has provided for the purity and integrity of the Judiciary, and being also at best an incomplete and troublesome proceeding for the vindication of private rights, it should be used by Congress with vigor and effect, rather than with an unwilling and stinting hand. This proposition seems obvious and just. Yet, we are aware that views to the contrary have obtained with some of our public men, and have been busily disseminated by interested parties ; and that an impression has been made on a large portion of the public that the remedy of impeachment is an odious one, that it tends to subdue the independence of the Judiciary, and that on this account it should be discouraged by Congress, except in extreme cases.

Nothing, we are persuaded, could be more false and mischievous than these doctrines : their very plausibility makes their falseness more wicked and atrocious. The consequences of such doctrines would be to foster and encourage judicial malfeasance ; to bring the

remedy of impeachment into practical disuse; to give immunity to crime in high places, and to apply the royal maxim—"the king can do no wrong"—to one of the most important departments of our republican government. The sophistry of the argument lies in a single word. We want an "*independent*" Judiciary; but we do not mean by independence, irresponsibility. We would place our judges above all responsibility to party cabals and popular forums; but we would not relax in one particular, or in one degree, their responsibility to official sources. We repeat, we want, above all things, an *independent* Judiciary—a Judiciary accountable only to official authority, but strictly accountable to that. It is this accountability, we are assured, that is our only safeguard against the encroachments and corruptions of the judicial power that "steals on;" that is to preserve the integrity and purity of the ermine, and to the strict, watchful, and jealous demands, of which we must look for the safety of private rights and the conservation of some of the gravest interests of the country.

Every proceeding to impeach a judge of the United States beyond the particular question of guilt or innocence that it involves, constitutes a precedent of the highest importance. If the practice of impeachment is to be discouraged by Congress and marked with odium, because of the sophistical argument, that it impairs the independence of the Judiciary, then, every time this is done, a pernicious example is set, and a direct encouragement offered to crimes and misdemeanors on the bench. If the remedy given in the Constitution itself is to afford no prospect to the people of freeing themselves from a corrupt and arbitrary judge, to what desperate resorts may they not be driven. The subject is a grave one. More important and vital, we venture to say, than half the questions which distract the country and divide it into great contending parties, is the topic of the *freedom of impeachment*.

We are not arguing on abstractions: the lessons we would teach are urged by practical experiences. It is manifest to reflecting men that the practice of impeachment is rapidly falling into disuse; that it has been so disavored by Congress and reproached by it, that the victims of judicial tyranny are rather disposed to suffer in silence than to approach Congress as odious and hopeless petitioners. It will be recollected that in the proceedings of the last Congress, toward the impeachment of Judge Watrous of Texas, the same sophistical appeals we have been generally condemning were made, in that case, for "the independence of the Judiciary," and strenuous efforts made to reproach those who asked for justice as conspirators against an honest and fearless administration of the law. This was, as we must contend, clearly wrong, unjust, and unconstitutional in spirit. Of the particular facts in the Watrous case, we do not propose to treat. With the question of his guilt or innocence we have nothing to do; we commit that to the examination and sober thought of Congress. But we are free to reprehend those false and pernicious

doctrines with respect to the practice of impeachment, which, in connection with the Watrous case, have been widely spread over the country, and have impressed the public mind with dangerous force.

We hold that the remedy of impeachment should be exercised with vigor and effect, and that such exercise instead of subduing the independence of the Judiciary is calculated to produce nothing more than a salutary sense of their responsibility to official sources, and to encourage them to good deeds. We recognize in every proceeding toward the impeachment of a judge of the United States, the setting of a public example, pregnant with good or with evil. To the character and force of this example it is right for the representative of the people to attend, as well as to the particular question of guilt or innocence. The danger is that in attempting to assure the independence of the Judiciary by protecting it against the power of impeachment, the example may be overstepped, and encouragement and immunity offered to crime and corruption on the bench. It is this danger that we exclaim against. It is such examples that should be reprehended by the people, or quickly corrected by their representatives.

Who now can revert to the case of Judge Watrous and enumerate its peculiar circumstances—the fact that for ten years his conduct had been the subject of steady accusation; the fact that he had been charged with crimes and misdemeanors under the imposing form of a legislative sentence; the fact that he had been accused by the unanimous vote of one investigating committee and a moiety of another—and say that under these circumstances the failure to impeach him, because of considerations for the independence of the Judiciary, was not a grave error, and did not involve a baleful example, directly encouraging judicial misconduct, with the almost certain hope of immunity from punishment? We are aware that there were other grounds for the refusal of the last House to impeach Judge Watrous than a regard for the independence of the Judiciary; we are aware that many true and conscientious members of that House, and with them a portion of the committee that made the investigation, resisted the impeachment for a variety of reasons; but all honest observers of the debates in the case will recollect the clamor that was raised inside and outside of the House about the abstraction of an independent Judiciary, and what weight that idle and sophistical argument had in the final determination of the contest. We repeat, for ourselves, that we pass no opinion on the question of the Judge's guilt or innocence. We censure the arguments which were brought to defend him; and we say, moreover, with the sentiments of all reflecting men, as we believe, to sustain us, that, whether guilty or innocent, the circumstances under which he was permitted to go back upon the community, without a trial, have constituted a bad example to go before the country, have afforded a powerful encouragement to judicial malfeasance, and have established a precedent dangerous in the extreme to the rights and liberties of the American people.

With respect to the importance of these precedents, and as the most imposing invocation we can offer to Congress to correct past examples of indirect license, and to set future examples of judicial responsibility, we may quote a just and timely sentiment offered on the subject by the distinguished head of the present government, whose opinions at all times of his matured life, on matters of public interest, have commanded the attention of the country, and whose regard for the independence of the Judiciary on the one hand, and the maintenance of its purity on the other, can neither be doubted nor questioned. We refer to the President of the United States on the trial of Judge Peck (1831). Mr. Buchanan, who was one of the managers, used the following remarkable language, premising that he "should strongly express what he strongly felt":

"I do most solemnly believe 'that if this Judge shall escape punishment, the description which has often been contemptuously applied to the power of impeachment, that it is but the scare-crow of the Constitution, will hereafter be strictly just. If the power of impeachment presents no prospect to the people of removing an arbitrary and tyrannical judge, what will be the consequence? They will soon begin to inquire whether the judicial office ought not to be limited to a term of years. At the commencement of this trial I should have shrunk with horror from such a proposition, but if there be no other alternative, if the people must either be cursed during a long life with an arbitrary and oppressive judge, who has trampled upon their rights, or the Constitution must be so amended as to limit the term of office of the inferior judges, I shall choose the last alternative as the least of two very great evils."

We may well pray for the aversion of the evils which Mr. Buchanan then prophesied, and which succeeding events show to be fearfully imminent. In the danger that threatened us then, and that threatens us now with the sharp distinctness of its approaching step, there is but one remedy, that of free and vigorous impeachment, so there is but one power in the Constitution to address our prayers for safety to, and that is the halls of Congress.

ART. X.—THE NEUTRALITY LAWS AND PROGRESS.

ON the 20th of August, 1818, the Congress of the United States passed the law popularly known as the "Neutrality Law." The provisions of this extraordinary statute, with respect to the military enterprises of the citizens of the United States are matters of notoriety.

The sections of the act upon which we design to comment, prohibit enlistments, or agreements to enlist, within the United States for foreign service, and denounce expeditions against the territory or dominions of foreign powers. With respect to expeditions, or military enterprises of this sort, the following is the language of the law:

"SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person shall, within the territory or jurisdiction of the United States, begin, or set on foot, or provide, or pre-

pare, the means for any military expedition or enterprise, to be carried on from thence against the territory or dominions of any foreign prince or state, or of any colony, district, or people, with whom the United States are at peace, every person so offending shall be deemed guilty of a high misdemeanor, and shall be fined not exceeding three thousand dollars, and imprisoned not more than three years."

It has been generally urged that the object of this law was to enforce and carry out those obligations of neutrality which pertained to the government. But this view is wholly illogical and erroneous. The law is, in fact, improperly termed a neutrality law; nothing is said in it of neutrality; the word does not even occur in its title, which is, "An act, in addition to the 'Act for the punishment of certain crimes against the United States,' and to repeal the act therein mentioned." The statute creates a crime or misdemeanor; it is not founded upon any of the recognized obligations of international law; it invents an offence new to this code, and denounces it under heavy and tyrannical penalties. The neutrality of the state is one thing, that of its citizens is another. The one is a recognized duty, growing out of international law and custom, and recommended by the examples of the modern nations. The other is a tyrannical command, founded on no natural obligations, and is an invention of American legislatures, without any equal precedent or parallel in the municipal codes of other nations.

This is not merely a question of legal construction. It is even more than a question of civil freedom; it involves consequences of the gravest and most practical character with respect to our national interests and our growth as a political power. Instead of confining the spirit and power of our citizens by such odious restrictions as those referred to above, it is the highest policy of our government, while itself remaining neutral, to give the greatest freedom to the military enterprises of our citizens on distant theatres, wherever these enterprises may be invited or tolerated by foreign nations, and are not merely predatory excursions. Such excursions, indeed, deserve to be denounced. But the monstrous law, from which we have taken the extract above, not only denounces these, but it prohibits, absolutely and under all circumstances, the enlistment within its territories, or the preparation there of any expedition in the service or against any foreign power or people, no matter if invited by or undertaken with the consent of the competent foreign authorities. It not only checks aggression and rapacity; but it opposes all legitimate progress of American arms, and with them American civilization. It is here that the statute is offensive, and it is in respect to this provision that we exclaim against it as a tyrannical and retrogressive act of legislation. The law, within the limits referred to, is too absurd to bear argument. It is illogical by its own terms.

It will be observed that the law is not intended to operate against *unassociated* individuals. For it to operate thus would be to withhold the right of expatriation, a right recognized by our own, as well

as all liberal governments of modern times. But the terms of the law itself are sufficiently definite on this point. There must clearly be an association or an organization to bring the case within the prohibition of the section quoted above as constituting the material part of the law.

Now the questions naturally and forcibly occurs, if it is not the duty of individuals to keep at home and maintain their neutrality, how can this be made the duty of numbers, or even of organized bands of individuals. Surely the mere fact of an organization, or the mere circumstance of numbers, cannot change a principle which is essentially the same. The movement, indeed, may be given greater notoriety by numbers, and may be made more imposing by an organization; but these are circumstances which cannot affect, because they do not reach the question of duty, which is as much involved in the case of an individual, as in hundreds of individuals.

We are aware that there are some persons so easily impressed by circumstances as to take the opinion that when, not individuals, but a company of individuals, emigrate to take up arms abroad, the movement, in some way which they cannot exactly explain, involves the government and has its countenance and complicity; but this is wholly illogical. The government has no more moral or natural right to restrain numbers of individuals than a single one; and it no more gives freedom or privilege to many, because they are many, than to one. We admit that the government would have the right, not only under the special statute we are commenting upon, but under the public law, to restrain and to punish a mere raid or predatory expedition. So, too, it would have the right to punish a single pirate or lawless adventurer. We only claim, that, as the government has no right, and does not pretend to have any right, to restrain a single unassociated individual from military enterprises abroad which are consented to or tolerated by the foreign authorities, so it has properly no right to restrain organized numbers of individuals from enterprises to be conducted on the same conditions.

As our views on the vexed subject of neutrality are original, and not copied from any sect or leaders in the party politics of the country, it may be well to sum them up, and place them in juxtaposition as a number or series of general principles:

1. Neutrality is the duty of the state or government, founded upon the obligations of international law, or rather of international comity. It is a duty recommended, too, by those considerations of republican policy which limit and restrain the action of the government, while they enlarge the freedom of the individual.

2. Neutrality is not the duty of the individual citizen. It cannot be naturally or logically predicated of him; it can only be predicated of political communities. To impose "neutrality" on the individual citizen would be to shut him up in a territorial prison, to deprive him of his free will, and to destroy all the personal attributes in him, and make him a chattel of the government.

3. As neutrality is not the duty of the individual, neither can it logically be the duty of bands or companies of individuals, who should, therefore, be allowed to assemble, organize, and enlist freely for foreign military enterprises.

4. But although individuals and companies of individuals may be naturally and justly free to prosecute military enterprises abroad, they must do it with the agreement and consent of the foreign state in whose service or under whose auspices they take up arms. They are certainly not free to impose or precipitate themselves upon any people, for this would be in violation of the integrity of a nation's territory and a natural crime. This, in short, would be lawless, rapacious, piratical, and properly branded by the ignominious term of *Filibusterism*.

We have no defence to offer for "filibusterism" properly so-called. But we do defend the cause of American progress, and maintain the doctrine that our citizens should be allowed to freely enlist and emigrate for foreign military service, whenever legitimate opportunities may offer; and that the government has no just right to restrain their actions in this respect, or to hold an inquisition into the motives which prompt them. Means and opportunities such as these, to impart into foreign countries American influences, to sow there the seeds of our civilization, and to extend, by the bold and hardy enterprise of our citizens, their ideas and institutions, are not to be recklessly cut off or denounced. It is the cause of legitimate American progress we defend, and in that cause surely there should be no abridgment of liberty, or repression of the spirit of adventure.

A few words here of the advances in the progress of our country to its present stage of prosperity and power,

In the early construction of our system of government there seem to have been no anticipations seriously indulged of the future extension, progress, and greatness of the American nation. Thus the system of the government, as originally modeled, was of the most bald simplicity. There was nothing provided in the Constitution for a ministry or an "*administration*" (as the loose and incorrect American term is), to share the burden and responsibilities of the government with the President, who was considered by the early founders of the little republic equal to sustain all the labors and cares of the government, with the assistance of mere clerks or secretaries, and without the advice of ministers. All relations with foreign powers were to be limited as much as possible; the little republic was thought to have no concern in the affairs of Europe, and our foreign diplomacy was reduced to a simplicity that now appears almost shameful and mean.

Indeed, it is a curious fact, and one we believe not generally known, that neither in the Constitution nor in the early practice of the government was any provision made for a diplomatic service, through the offices of ambassadors and ministers resident.

How changed is now the condition of our country, since the days when our early statesmen abnegated the practice of diplomatic intercourse by ambassadors. Now we have the most magnificent territory of any nation in the world; and now we have established diplomatic relations not only with all the states of Europe, but with the most distant and exclusive nations on the globe.

But, with all this immense growth and progress, one stumbling-block has, more than all open and other opposition, embarrassed the career of the United States; and this has been an improvident law of the government itself. We refer to the "neutrality law," which we have already commented upon at some considerable length. By this law our country has been, in a great measure, incapacitated from availing itself of the relations that the Spanish-American republics, and the anarchical peoples in our Southern neighborhood, naturally bear to us. These republics are decadent—dead members of the American system. They must, sooner or later, succumb to ruin, and whatever destiny awaits them in the wreck and loss of their nationality. Our government might easily absorb them; but its duty is neutrality—and that duty it has executed in the face of temptations which none of the modern powers have ever withstood. But it is not the duty of our government, gratuitously to place a stumbling-block in its own career of greatness. It is not its duty to restrain and prevent its citizens from carrying American influences into the neighboring republics, from engaging in the service of such republics, and from infusing American sentiment into the hearts of their peoples.

It is clear that the great opening by which American influences are to enter into the republics of Mexico and Central America, is to be by the engagement of our countrymen in their military service. These countries are incessantly engaged in war; their military forces are being constantly diminished. They want soldiers; and an abundant material to supply the demand is at their doors. American volunteers should be free to go there—free to go wherever opportunity beckons to enterprise. We insist upon the repeal of the neutrality law so far as this—not that our countrymen should be free to force themselves and to prey upon any country, but that they should be free in the character of soldiers to carry and establish abroad those legitimate American influences, to which we must look for the securing and hastening of our destiny on the great American isthmus.

We do not look to the accomplishment of that destiny by force. We look to its accomplishment through the natural influences of American populations. We only insist that we should be free to plant those populations, by the powerful inducements of military service abroad, in the heart of every nation that invites them.

Let, then, the intrusive stumbling-block be removed. Let the legitimate career of the United States be unarrested and unembarrassed. Let us, in short, fulfil the destiny that Nature has appointed for us, without anticipating it by violence on the one hand, or forfeiting it by inaction on the other.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—IMMENSE DEVELOPMENT OF OUR FOREIGN TRADE.

THE United States *Economist*, an admirable commercial authority, thus comments upon this subject:—The development which has been given to the foreign trade of the country since the tariff of 1856 came into operation, may be seen in the following table of the leading exports, the specie movement, the net importation of goods, and the duties collected in each year of the present ad valorem tariff:

UNITED STATES IMPORTS, EXPORTS, AND CUSTOMS' REVENUES.

	Export Breadstuffs and Provisions.	Cotton.	Total of all Domestic.	Specie Import.	Specie Export.	Goods Imported.	Duties Collected.
1845.....	16,743,421	51,739,643	98,455,330	4,070,242	8,606,495	105,599,541	27,528,113
1846.....	27,701,121	42,767,331	101,718,042	3,777,732	3,905,268	110,048,850	26,712,668
1847.....	68,701,921	53,415,848	150,574,844	24,121,289	1,907,739	116,257,595	23,747,868
1848.....	37,472,751	61,998,294	130,203,709	6,360,224	15,841,620	140,661,902	31,757,070
1849.....	38,155,507	66,396,967	131,710,081	6,651,240	5,408,648	132,565,108	28,346,738
1850.....	26,051,371	71,984,616	134,900,233	4,628,792	7,522,964	164,032,033	39,668,686
1851.....	21,948,652	112,315,317	178,620,138	5,453,981	29,465,752	207,618,003	49,017,568
1852.....	35,857,027	87,965,732	154,930,443	5,503,544	42,674,135	195,072,695	47,339,326
1853.....	32,985,322	109,456,404	189,869,162	4,201,382	27,486,875	251,071,358	58,931,865
1854.....	65,941,323	93,956,220	215,156,304	6,918,184	41,436,456	275,935,893	64,224,190
1855.....	38,895,348	88,143,844	192,751,135	3,659,812	56,247,343	231,650,340	53,025,794
1856.....	77,187,301	128,382,351	310,586,330	4,207,632	45,745,485	295,650,938	64,022,863
1857.....	75,069,634	131,575,857	278,906,713	12,461,799	69,136,922	324,452,725	58,879,620
1858.....	52,439,089	131,386,661	251,351,133	19,274,496	52,633,147	251,727,008	41,789,619
1859.....	30,009,000	165,000,000	225,000,000	4,000,000	60,000,000	225,000,000	49,101,204

It is observable that the import and consumption of goods followed the increase of domestic exports, as a matter of course. The year 1847 was that of large exports of breadstuffs, as well as of the operation of the present ad valorem tariff in that year, the value of breadstuffs exported increased \$41,000,000, and the aggregate value of exports \$49,000,000, while the imports of goods increased but \$6,000,000, and the federal revenue showed no increase. The explanation is found in the specie column, which shows over \$24,000,000 imported in that year. In 1848 the gold discoveries reversed that state of things, and the United States became gold producers, but not considerable exporters until 1851, in which year cotton rose in exportable value, carrying the aggregate domestic exports to an extraordinary high figure. This was enhanced by the gold exports, and the result was an importation of goods in return, which produced an unexampled revenue. In 1852, the value of cotton fell materially, and breadstuffs did not increase, involving a decline in imports of goods and of revenue. In the year ending June, 1853, there was a recovery in the exports of breadstuffs and cotton, carrying the domestic exports to a very high figure, although the gold export declined as a consequence of the larger exports of breadstuffs and cotton. The proceeds of these latter having been sufficient, with railroad investments, to keep the balance in favor of the interior, setting the current in that direction, and at the close of the year leaving the government with \$23,000,000 in its vaults. The fiscal year of 1854

set in with an enormous deficit in the crops of France and England. The usual wants of the latter had been about 64,000,000 bushels, of which France supplied half, leaving both countries dependent on third markets for about 30,000,000 bushels. In that year, however, the two countries required 170,000,000 bushels. The United States exported all they could spare at high prices, and in the winter of 1854 exorbitant prices were obtained in New-York. The exports of domestic products reached an unparalleled figure, and the government collected upon the returned proceeds, the largest amount of customs it ever received. In 1855, the United States crop failed, and prices were very high. The improved products of the succeeding years admitted of still greater exports of breadstuffs, while cotton rose to an unprecedented figure, making an aggregate of exports of domestic products far in excess of any former one. This upward movement culminated in 1857, which was the year of the largest exports ever made of domestic produce, including specie, as it was the last year of the operation of the tariff of 1846. The year 1858 opened with a panic, originated in the stock market, but the series of bad harvests abroad seemed to have terminated, and a series of good crops, which cut off the American demand, set in. The figure for breadstuffs and provisions has declined greatly, but cotton and gold mark higher figures than before. The revenue of the government has been materially disturbed, however, by the low rates of duties under the present tariff, and there seems little chance that for the next few years at least, the unaided action of the customs will overtake the expenditures of the government. The value of cotton rises in the double ratio of larger quantities and higher prices, and this development is greatly aided by the cheap food, cheap money and transportation of Europe, which usually compensates in increased purchases of cotton for diminished demand for food. The value has increased 100,000,000 in ten years, and the prospect for the next ten is far more satisfactory than was the prospect at the close of the Mexican war. The Continent of Europe was then plunged in a political chaos which threatened the very existence of civilization. At this moment national interests are apparently consolidated on a permanent and favorable footing; commercial liberality seems to be the rule of governmental policy, while abundant harvests and abundant capital, with multiplied means of communication, seem to offer the broadest foundation for a new period of commercial and industrial prosperity. If the value of cotton has tripled in the last ten years, it may reasonably be expected to show the same progression in the next ten years.

The annual product of gold does not increase, but it is to be remarked, that in the first six years of the gold discovery, the amount in the United States accumulated, in other words, the product was more than the export. In the last three years the reverse has been the case, and the amount in the country undergoes reduction. This seems to result from financial operations, independent of the operations of commerce. During the years of railroad excitement, capital flowed toward this country and to the West for investment, carrying with it the current of the metals. Since the panic the reverse has been the case, and even the large exports of produce has not sufficed to redress the adverse balance caused by financial transactions.

2.—SHIP-BUILDING AT THE SOUTH—PENSACOLA NAVY-YARD.

A brief examination will show that we have many advantages over Northern yards. Our ships are built of live oak frames and white oak bottoms, and yellow pine is extensively used in beams, decks, carlins, plankshear, air streaks, &c., &c. The live-oak frames are cut in Florida, Louisiana, and Texas, and can be placed at this yard at a less cost, than at any other navy-yard in the country; and the finest yellow pine timber in the world, and which costs in Northern yards from thirty-five to forty dollars per thousand, is placed at this yard from the adjoining mills, at about seventeen dollars. White oak may be placed here at the same price that it can be had at Northern yards. These are very important considerations.

In climate, too, we enjoy peculiar advantages, enabling mechanics to work all the year round in the open air, rainy days excepted; while it also enables us to dispense with that most expensive structure in other yards, a ship-house.

These advantages have greatly contributed to the remarkable results, so creditable to the Pensacola yard, to which we have called public attention; but it were unjust to all concerned, were we not to say that all these advantages would have utterly failed to produce them, had they not been guided and controlled by professional skill, and zealous and faithful industry. To the acting Naval Constructor, Mr. Porter, aided by the chiefs of the several branches of industry at the yard, and their workmen, is the government indebted for these vessels. The Navy Department paid him the distinguished compliment, of selecting from all the plans submitted, his design and model of the Seminole; and the manner in which he has executed his conception, reflects credit upon himself and the Department.

The Seminole belongs to a new style of American war-ships, not, as yet, found in any other navy; a ship which, with a most formidable and destructive battery, has sufficient tonnage and power to circumnavigate the globe—while, at the same time, she can enter nearly every commercial port and every harbor of our country, and can be maintained at about one third the expense of an ordinary steam sloop-of-war.—*Tribune, Pensacola.*

3.—SLAVE TRADE IN THE RED SEA.

BY EMANUEL WEISS.

Abolitionism, in Old as well as in New England, is of equivocal nature, and serves mainly to cover commercial and political purposes; if otherwise, the British long ago would have bestowed the merited attention also upon slave trade in the Red Sea. For a quarter of a century English mail steamers, freighted with lay and churchmen passengers of this high-spirited nation, run monthly, nay weekly, through the narrow channel which justly might be called one of the arteries of British power and trade. Is it possible that the officers and passengers of these steamers have remained ignorant of the fact that the tiny crafts, with the huge lateen sails, which daily, between Rab el Mandeb and Ras Mohamet, cross their wake, are not filled also with passengers—the orphans and widows of murdered fathers and husbands? Kidnapping and selling of children is bad enough, yet it is worse that the mighty of the earth should remain indifferent spectators to a scandalous trade, which delivers thousands of them annually into the hands of miscreants—the lineal descendants of the Edomites—who in the long run of all-purifying time could or would not clear themselves of the beastly vices of which the decalogue renders so shuddering an account! Compared with this trade of children, the sale of full-grown negroes to Christian planters for the cultivation of the soil, is rather a meritorious action. And Aden and Perim, covered with the flag of the holy dragon killer, are called the keys to the sea whence these atrocities are committed and permitted. As many as three thousand children are carried annually to the shores of the Red Sea, mostly from the Galla nation, which, like the ancient Numides and their descendants in Northern Africa, notwithstanding their dark hue, belong to the Caucasian race. The Galla offer beautiful specimens of the human kind, and the women of that race rank with the Turks next to the Circassians. The Galla believe in a Great Spirit (Waak), but unfortunately in no mediator between God and man, and are therefore taxed as infidels by their neighbors, the Christian and Mohammedan, true believers of Abyssinia. These latter so believe themselves entitled to make game of the Galla heathens, who furnish them the means of barter with the Turkish settlements on the coast.

The Turks in Zeyla, Massawah and Suakin, in spite of the Tauseemat (or ordinance) which abolished the slave trade, but lately legalized it with an export duty of \$7 50 per head; \$2 50 were to be paid for the custom-house receipts (Raftich), and half a dollar the governor (Kaimakan) levies himself under the plea of brokerage (delala). So I found it a year ago in Massawah, where both

the English and the French keep consular agents. Half the revenues in these places are derived from the slave trade. Also some seven thousand negro children from Soahel (east coast of Africa) are annually imported into Arabia. The import duty on slaves in the ports of the Yemou, when unaccompanied by Raftieh, is \$1.25 per head on negroes and \$4 on Gall slaves; in Djudda it is 12 per cent. on the market value. The Kaimakans of Massawah and Suakin have constant orders for slaves on hand from their superiors in Djudda and Stambul, so they make always the first choice, and at their own price of course, from every transport of slaves from the interior, before they are allowed to enter the market.

I never saw in the slave bazaars of Upper Egypt and the coast of the Red Sea a slave of man's age. Girls, before their puberty, are worth half as much again as such who have attained it, and who are called Baleca. Boys of eighteen or twenty are quite unsaleable. The brighter the skin and the smoother the hair the higher the value of the slave girl. Such Galla girls of yellow tint and smooth hair, called Seedama, are highly appreciated by the Turks and Arabs, although they are considered unbending and proud.

The slave trade in the Red Sea is chiefly in the hands of the Hadrami merchants, who are very enterprising and fond of travelling; they are met in all the cities of the East; their propensity for acquisition admits neither prodigality nor liberality. The Hadrami marries early; desire of gain may lead him off for a while from his herd, but never will he forsake it, nor would he dare to pollute it with wives and children from foreign countries. Tradition lays the birth-place of the antediluvian patriarch Hut in the Hadramaout. The inhabitants of this country, the Hadrami, consider it inferior to none in holiness, and will allow neither Franks nor Turks to pollute it with their presence. The Hadrami are extremely fanatical, and are as well the authors of the late Djudda murders, as they were of the attempted assassination of both Turks and Christians, in the Hedjass, three years ago.

The negro children are generally kept for household work, and are therefore treated with less indulgence than the Galla; they are very frequently ill-treated, and live only on the refuse of the frugal Arab board.

The voyage of an Arab slave vessel from Zanzibar to Djudda during the southwest monsoon takes about forty-five days. Coarse food, and cold nights, especially toward the end of the voyage, create dysentery and erysipelas, also small-pox frequently thin the number of little passengers in the crowded boats; their mortality in this passage is calculated by the slave dealers as being one third. The passage of a negro child—board consisting of corn and dried fish inclusive—costs \$2, and is paid on the survivors only. The average price of such a child on the coast is about \$10, which by the mortality during the passage is raised to \$15. To this have to be added \$2 for passage, \$5 for import duty in Djudda, and one dollar more for brokerage; which brings the final cost of the slave to \$25 in the Arabian ports. The average price of a healthy negro slave, not over fifteen years of age, in the port of Djudda, is about \$40; but many of the survivors, having suffered more or less during the passage, do not even reach this average, and so the profits in this trade are not very important we see. In some parts of the coast I was told, such children may be got as low as five dollars a piece.

Negro girls not particularly handsome do not bring more than boys, whereas Galla girls are worth half as much again as boys of their race. The average price of a Galla girl of ten or twelve years of age in Djudda was, in February, last year, when I left this place, \$75, and of a boy, \$50; in Massawah the same were worth \$60 for one and \$40 the other, and in Adja, the capital of the Abyssinian province, Tigreh, \$30 and \$20. Of this latter price the kidnapper on the borders receives hardly one half, because also here the violent and unnatural change of soil and climate creates numberless victims. On the seashore the mortality ceases; also the short passages to the Arabian coast are not dangerous, so much less so as the Galla slaves are far better cared for than the negroes; they are also very seldom punished or ill-treated, because frequently such Galla slaves have the stoical courage to furnish themselves to death in such cases.

Most of the Galla slaves are obtained by "Razzias" of the Abyssinian border chieftains of Christian faith, and many are kidnapped by strolling thieves of Moslem faith. Moslems only busy themselves in this trade, the Christian Abyssinians abstain from it, not from moral nor religious principles, but only because slave property would not be safe in their hands among the Mohammedan population of the seacoast.

One third of the population of Abyssinia stands to the Moslem faith, and consequently to the upholding of the slave trade, because Mohammed in his book of books (the Koran) designs it as a means to propagate his creed. Already several tribes of the great Galla nation have become converted to the Islam by proselytes returned from bondage. The Mohammedan slave dealer considers it his duty to teach every new acquisition as fast as possible the articles of his confession in the Arabian language, which consists of but nine words, and as soon as the slave is able to repeat them he is considered a Moslem. The Koran forbids the infidel to marry, or what amounts to the same thing, to purchase a Moslem woman. The Turks, who are not over scrupulous in articles of faith nor in anything else, permit strangers (Franks and Greeks) in the Red Sea to purchase as many slaves as they can, which has been done to the great scandal of the "faithful," who did not forget to revenge this sacrilegious act in the late Djudda butchery on the slave women of the Greek merchants and their offsprings.

Two rival powers reign actually over Abyssinia; Nechoon Taddrus (Emperor Theodore) the one, and Negussi the other; both Christians are averse to the slave trade, but none dare to begin with abolitionism for fear of bringing the Moslem part of the population to a man against him in the field of contest with his rival.

Three years ago the abolition of the slave trade was openly proclaimed by authority of the Sultan both in Massawah and Suakin, the principal slave marts in the Red Sea. This was done with little or no good will, only to please the "Allies," and now as the danger is past, the same are told that this part of the Tazzeermar is contrary to the Islam, and cannot be thought of being enforced in the very cradle of the Moslem faith.

One tenth part of the naval power lavished by the "generous" British in the suppression of the slave trade on the west coast of Africa would be sufficient to put a final stop to a real nuisance on the opposite coast of the same continent. Unfortunately this nuisance hurts not the material interests of British commerce and colonies, and so the matter is left quietly to its course.

English subjects and "proteges" in the Red Sea keep slaves under the very eyes of their Consuls, in defiance of the law, constructed on the famous principle, that there is no sale where there are no purchasers. Banian merchants from British India established in the ports of the Yemen (who own a great deal of shipping in those parts), man their vessels to a great extent with slaves, in spite of the Christian or English law, whereas they are very strict in the observance of the dogma of the metempsychose, and never allow their craft to be polluted with dried fish or cowhides. These facts are known to every English official in the Arabian Gulf, in Suez, Djudda, and Aden, but they dare not tear off the veil since it is not in the interest of their government.

4.—MOVEMENT IN VIRGINIA LOOKING TO DIRECT TRADE.

A memorial has recently been prepared, asking from the Legislature of Virginia, such legislation as it is thought will foster and encourage her foreign commerce. We give the memorial entire:

The undersigned citizens of Virginia, respectfully represent, that they wish to see Virginia *commercially* free and independent, which is her right, vouchsafed to her by the bountiful hand of nature, and permitted to her by the laws and constitution under which we live; but a right and inestimable privilege, the enjoyment of which your petitioners respectfully represent, she has for nearly a century been debarred of by the neglect of her own sons, to whom she has heretofore intrusted the power of legislation. To satisfy your honorable body of the very

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low ebb to which our foreign direct commerce has sunk, we submit the following facts, derived from the Census of 1850 : (The commerce of Virginia and Maryland prior to the Revolution, is calculated together.)

VIRGINIA AND MARYLAND.	
Imported in 1750.....	£349,419
in 1760.....	605,882
in 1770.....	717,782
VIRGINIA.	
Imported in 1830.....	\$405,735
in 1840.....	545,985
in 1850.....	426,599
NEW-YORK.	
Imported in 1750.....	£267,130
in 1760.....	480,106
in 1770.....	475,991
in 1830.....	\$35,624,070
in 1840.....	60,440,750
in 1850.....	111,123,224

These figures disclose to us a most lamentable spectacle. We present to the world a State which has sunk from the first commercial emporium on the Western continent, into a State which, in the year 1850, was too low to enter into a comparison with New-York.

Her imports and exports stand for the year 1750 as compared with New-York, as follows :

VIRGINIA AND MARYLAND.		NEW-YORK.	
Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.
£508,939.	£349,419.	\$35,632.	£267,130.

A century has elapsed, and the condition of things is as follows. In the year 1850 :

VIRGINIA AND MARYLAND.		NEW-YORK.	
Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.
\$10,382,999.	\$6,550,800.	\$52,712,789.	\$111,123,524.

Comment upon these facts is unnecessary—our business is with the remedy ; and conscious that there is a remedy within the limits of the constitution, we appeal to you for a redress of grievances ; we point out the act of 1856, sec. 14, upon the subject of merchants' licenses, as a measure which in its practical operations, is detrimental to our commercial independence ; by this act, if an article is brought into Virginia from another State by one of our merchants in a large quantity, and is sold by him to the jobbers in such quantities as they may need, and then sold by the jobber to the retailer, of whom one of your petitioners buys it, and this is the usual course which merchandise takes, this article thus sold, pays *three* separate State taxes, while, if the retailer, who generally supplies the consumer, will go into any other State and there procure his supplies, and bring them into Virginia and sell them to one of your petitioners, it would pay but *one* State tax. The policy by which Virginia pays every retailer within her limits a bonus of from one to two State taxes to abandon his own State and those who are pursuing a lawful calling in it, to go beyond her limits to find the supplies requisite and necessary for his sales, does seem to your petitioners to be unwise, and indefensible under any pretext or for any purpose, especially when this course benefits Yankee ship-owners and Yankee merchants in the Northern States, where there is a powerful party arrayed in open hostility to a description of property in which your petitioners are largely interested.

That the enactments of your honorable body, when bottomed upon correct principles, upon commercial subjects, are calculated to produce the most beneficial results, we state the following facts: In the year 1856, an act was passed by the Legislature, by which a merchant who imported from abroad into our State, and paid duties at any custom-house in Virginia upon his importations, obtained credit on his sales to the amount of the value of the goods and the duties thus paid. In 1856, the year prior to the passage of this act, there was brought into this State from abroad, 5,960 bags of coffee; within four years, this sum has risen to more than six times the importation in 1855; so that for the year ending July 1, 1859, the custom-house returns at Richmond alone, make the number of bags of coffee imported directly, 36,653.

Your petitioners could cite many other facts, and present many other considerations, which, in their judgment, might be quite as pertinent, but we have stated that we desire a direct foreign intercourse with those who consume our products, and we wish such goods as we consume to be brought as directly from those who produce them in our own waters. We wish to see Virginia commercially independent. It is our birthright as citizens of the State, and we ask that all laws militating against her commercial independence be repealed, and such acts passed as are prudent and constitutional for the perfecting of this result. And having stated imperfectly our grievances, we leave the subject in the hands of those who by our laws and constitution compose the correct tribunal.

5.—COMPARATIVE LOSSES ON AMERICAN SHIPS AND FREIGHTS, AND ON CARGOES, DURING THE YEAR 1858, BY SHIPWRECK.

I.—Losses on Ships and Freights.

	Ships.	Steamers.	Barques.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Total.
January.....	\$361,200	\$30,800	\$106,000	\$39,700	\$59,250	\$597,550
February.....	541,500	51,000	99,800	56,200	113,100	861,600
March.....	340,800	397,000	85,800	57,150	73,600	954,350
April.....	374,000	123,000	194,500	98,000	64,800	767,300
May.....	495,000	57,000	148,700	24,800	47,300	772,800
June.....	279,000	238,500	30,000	50,500	47,850	645,850
July.....	390,000	110,000	14,000	32,000	546,000
August.....	353,500	305,500	114,000	29,500	53,300	855,800
September.....	237,500	275,000	87,000	59,000	39,600	698,100
October.....	321,000	135,000	71,000	21,700	123,100	671,800
November.....	868,500	507,000	220,000	148,700	123,700	1,867,000
December.....	868,000	40,000	406,000	106,300	188,800	1,670,100
Total.....	\$5,430,000	\$2,168,800	\$1,643,400	\$705,610	\$961,400	\$10,909,210

II.—Losses on Cargoes.

	Ship.	Steamers.	Barques.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Total.
January....	\$148,000	\$15,000	\$111,500	\$61,000	\$11,800	\$347,300
February.....	314,500	54,000	14,500	10,800	41,300	435,100
March.....	171,200	1,252,000	88,000	22,700	21,200	1,555,600
April.....	511,000	38,000	89,000	148,800	67,600	854,400
May.....	733,800	111,000	55,000	40,500	51,900	992,200
June.....	260,000	375,000	6,000	11,400	10,500	662,900
July.....	198,000	85,000	10,000	49,460	340,460
August.....	340,000	6,000	210,000	12,000	10,700	561,700
September.....	271,000	460,000	185,000	16,900	18,300	950,800
October.....	287,000	230,000	40,700	15,300	99,300	672,300
November.....	595,600	105,000	98,000	124,700	53,600	976,900
December.....	253,000	161,000	200,000	168,600	64,500	847,100
Cargoes.....	4,087,100	2,807,000	1,182,700	641,800	500,660	9,219,260
Vessels.....	5,430,000	2,168,800	1,643,400	705,610	961,400	10,909,210
Total.....	\$9,517,100	\$4,975,800	\$2,826,100	\$1,347,410	\$1,462,060	\$20,128,470

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Estimate of Disasters for the Year 1857.

	Collisions.	Abandoned.	Fires.	Stranded.	Disasted.	Missing.	Other.	Total.
Steamers.....	25	6	18	36	66	151
Ships.....	21	15	11	55	30	4	164	301
Barques.....	14	19	8	64	25	7	84	224
Brigs.....	39	26	5	56	35	9	60	215
Schooners.....	72	33	14	93	54	17	394	667
Total.....	162	91	56	307	147	37	758	1,558

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1.—PLANTERS' CONVENTION AT NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE.

Among the resolutions adopted by this body recently, were the following, offered by Mr. T. J. Hudson, of Mississippi :

Whereas, The great mass of the South are engaged in agricultural pursuits, and as agriculture is the basis of our social and political stability, and the great element of our strength and power; and whereas, experience has demonstrated the immense value of State and County Agricultural Associations in promoting improvement, by stimulating a spirit of investigation and inquiry, as to our wants and the best means of supplying them; therefore,

Resolved, That we recommend to the several Southern States the establishment of a State Board of Agriculture, with auxiliary County Societies, and that a committee of five be appointed to prepare a plan, and respectfully urge its adoption by the Southern States.

Resolved, That regarding Planters' Conventions of the South as of great value, it should be the duty of the State Boards to appoint, annually, delegates to attend at such time and place as may be designated.

Resolved, That the place of holding these Conventions ought to be changed from year to year, and hereafter provision should be made for an exhibition of Southern industry at our annual meetings.

Resolved, That, regarding the collection of agricultural statistics as of the greatest importance, we recommend to the several Southern States a plan for the annual collection of agricultural statistics, and for their publication, and that a committee of five be appointed to prepare a plan.

Resolved, That a plan should be adopted and here urged on the Agricultural Boards of the Southern States, by which semi-monthly reports of the growing cotton crops could be had from every county in the South.

The following resolutions, offered by Col. S. R. Cockrill, of Nashville, were also adopted :

Whereas, There are now many conflicting opinions on the subject of reclaiming the great alluvial deposit of the Mississippi river, and some of its lower tributaries; now, therefore, to aid in solving these difficulties, and rendering a value to the States of Louisiana, Mississippi, Arkansas, Missouri, Tennessee, Illinois and Kentucky,

Be it Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed, to set forth to the Senators and Representatives in Congress, the importance and propriety of an application to the Navy Department, or to the President, for an order to Commander Maury, to select as many Corps of Engineers as may be necessary, and

with these to proceed to the valley of the Mississippi, and make a full and complete survey of the whole valley and river from St. Louis to New-Orleans.

Resolved, That the Secretary of the Navy be requested to instruct the said Engineers to make a diagram of the valley and river—to collect all the evidence on the subject of all overflows of the present century—to embrace all the Meteorological observations made in the *water-shed*, drained by the Mississippi; also to report the influence of the known wind currents, and upon *this evidence* to base an opinion upon the practicability of the present system of leveeing the river, or what other plan is less expensive or more certain in accomplishing the object.

Resolved, That the States mentioned, and the cities, counties, and parishes along the river, be requested to take action on the subject, and signify their willingness to contribute a *pro rata* compensation to Commander Maury for the service, while in progress and after completion.

Resolved, That the report, with the evidence, maps, and diagrams of the river and valley, be printed for the use of the States named.

Resolved, That the Committee named in the first resolution be authorized and requested to embrace in their application to the members of Congress any other subject to be reported upon, which they may deem proper and expedient.

Resolved, That this Convention recommend the establishment of an Agricultural Periodical, to be devoted to the dissemination of useful knowledge concerning the cultivation, products, and best modes of improving the alluvial lands of the Mississippi and its tributaries.

Resolved, That this periodical be devoted to both the cotton and sugar interests in the Mississippi valley.

Resolved, That this Convention recommend the cultivators of the alluvial lands to sustain such a publication; and suggests New-Orleans, Vicksburg, Memphis or St. Louis, as points suitable for the office of said periodical.

The following resolutions, offered by Col. Dabney Minor, of Mississippi, were adopted:

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed to draft a Constitution and by-laws for the government of the Southern Planters' Convention, to be submitted for adoption at its next annual meeting.

Resolved, That the Bureaus of Tennessee and Mississippi be requested to memorialize their respective State Legislatures to pass an act, requiring the sheriff or other officers of each county to make to said Bureaus accurate monthly reports of the state of the crops in their respective counties. Also to obtain as accurate statistical information in relation to the cotton, corn, wheat and tobacco crops, and the number of stock and pork hogs, as possible, and make an annual report to said Bureaus, by them to be published.

Resolved, That we recommend to the Agricultural Boards of the South the establishment and support of a weekly and monthly journal in each State, devoted to the objects of their organization.

Resolved, That the thanks of this Convention are due to the Nashville press, and the press of the South, for their aid in getting up this Convention, and we respectfully ask their co-operation in carrying out the great object in view.

Resolved, That the press of the city of Nashville, and of the South generally, be respectfully requested to publish the proceedings of this Convention.

Resolved, That when this Convention adjourns, it adjourn to meet in the town of Holly Springs, Mississippi, on the first Monday of October, 1860.

The President of the Convention then announced the Committees required under the several resolutions, as follow:

1. Committee to prepare a plan and urge its adoption on the Southern States—Dr. Minor Lamar, Mississippi; Dr. Matt Clay, Brookville, Mississippi; T. B. Rutherford, Mount Bethel, South Carolina; Gen. Wm. Brazelton, New Market, Tennessee; William T. Farley, Cellenville, Tennessee.

2. Committee to collect cotton and other statistics, &c.—Col. John Pope,

Memphis, Tennessee; Dr. A. Jackson, Jackson, Tennessee; T. E. B. Pegens, Oxford, Mississippi; Hon. John Belton O'Neal, Newberry, South Carolina; A. Sowell, Trenton, Tennessee.

3. Committee to memorialize Congress, etc.—Col. S. R. Cockrill, Nashville, Tennessee; J. S. Claybrook, Triune, Tennessee; D. Minor Lamar, Mississippi; R. B. Hurt, Jackson, Tennessee.

4. Committee to draft constitution and by-laws, etc.—T. J. Hudson, Lamar, Mississippi; James E. Sanders, Mobile, Alabama; Richard Peters, Atlanta, Georgia; S. R. Cockrill, Nashville, Tennessee; Dr. Lee, Pine Bluff, Arkansas.

After a vote of thanks to the President, Vice-Presidents, and Secretaries, the Convention adjourned.

2.—THE CHINESE SUGAR CANE.

It is with some concern that we have read the following article on the Chinese sugar cane. The editors of the *Boston Cultivator* are gentlemen whose opinions are entitled to much weight. We had hoped that the Chinese sugar cane would be established as a valuable forage plant for cattle. We had supposed that the evils charged to its account were the same which would occur from the excess of any other succulent green food. In the article we extract from the *Cultivator*, it will be perceived that the editors of that paper concur with the French Marquis, in affirming that the Chinese sugar cane produces not only a diminution of milk, but absolute sterility in cows. We trust that no unfortunate discovery will be made in regard to this plant as a food for hogs. Coming in after the stubble fields are exhausted and before corn is ready, we have considered it as filling an important place in hog raising, and would be very sorry to be compelled to abandon it.

SORGHO AS A FORAGE PLANT.—Much has been said and written upon the Chinese sugar cane, within the past two or three years, some maintaining that it contains more valuable qualities than any other field plant known. The two chief ends to be gained by its introduction and cultivation, as claimed by its enthusiastic advocates, are, or were, that it would enable every farmer to make his own sugar, and to produce a cheaper forage for his live stock than could be done by the cultivation of any other plant. With regard to the first claim we never had much confidence, yet quite as much as with regard to the second. Concerning the latter, that is to say, its usage as a forage plant, we copy the following statement, translated from the French *Journal of Practical Agriculture*, for the *Mark Lane Express*. Similar conclusions relative to its use in feeding cows, have been reached here, to those contained in the following experiments, which were made in France:

"When in your columns, Mr. Editor, you opened an inquiry respecting the qualities of the sugar sorgho of China as a forage plant, you ought to have received the observations of one of the oldest contributors of the *Journal of Agriculture*, when to that title was united that of being one of the first introducers of the sorgho.

"On principle, and in quality of member of the Zoological Society of Acclimation, I have shared in the distribution of seeds sent to the Society by M. de Montignay. These seeds have ripened with me from the first years of their introduction. I cite the fact, not to profit by it, for our latitude (40deg. 39m.) will not permit us to expect a fructification, constant, regular, and normal, but to let you see that my experiments have from the first continued uninterrupted. A cultivator in Sologne, seeking improvements, I have directed my attention to the sorgho, and its power of vegetation, to call it to my aid as a forage plant; at the same time divesting myself of all preconceived ideas, whether enthusiastic or disparaging. I shall not, therefore, touch the question but to throw light upon honest researches. I will not seek in the new plant a universal panacea for cattle, or a dangerous poison; but to excite a renewed examination. I will confess that the abundance of forage has won me as it has done others; but with

certain facts before me, duly stated, I stopped and reflected. Perhaps in the absence of regular accounts we might have deceived ourselves; but with the figures before us, we can come to no other conclusion; at the same time requesting the practitioners to renew their experiments carefully.

"The sorgho is not a violent poison for cattle; but if the effects observed, not only in my cultivation, but also in that of many of my neighbors, be frequently renewed, we ought necessarily to attribute to this plant a deleterious influence. On a farm which I occupy myself, twenty-five horned cattle have been fed exclusively on sorgho during a month; and from the precise day on which it was introduced in feeding the cattle, the journal of the farm shows a diminution of the profits of the dairy by one half, and the same decrease was exhibited every month of feeding with sorgho.

"On the other hand, there was, in respect to one of the cows, a case of wind that caused its death. Any other kind of food might have produced a similar accident; but what many of my neighbors have asserted is, the sterility of the cow fed on sorgho. If these are facts, sterility on the one hand, and a diminution of half in the production of milk on the other, repeated regularly in consequence of feeding the cows on sorgho, we must conclude from them that this plant is injurious; since it hinders or diminishes all kinds of production by interfering with the secretions, which must necessarily provoke a perturbation in the animal organism; all morbid causes having their origin in suppressions of this nature.

"I know that no improvement of the soil is possible without an abundance of green food; and their production regularly successive by a course of cropping is not always an easy matter. I should, therefore, regret being obliged to abandon the sorgho. The desire of preserving for a plant so luxuriant, a place in the production of green food, and also, on the other hand, the fear of introducing into the midst of our cultivated plants a dangerous auxiliary, ought to operate as a doubly powerful motive for prudently and honestly renewing the experiments.

"MARQUIS DE VIBRAVE."

3.—THE PINE FORESTS OF THE SOUTH.

A correspondent of the *Savannah Republican* sends us the corrected copy of a very valuable article which he prepared recently upon the commercial value of the pine forests of the South, which Governor Troup thought would eventually be as valuable as our best cotton lands. The Legislature of Georgia at its last session asked for the appointment by Congress of a commission to inquire into the extent of the Pine Belt, the probable time of its duration under its present rate of depletion, the statistics of the timber trade, etc., etc. The writer says:

I propose, sir, to jot down a few ideas connected with this Pine Belt, and to give a few statistics drawn from the small stock of public and other documents before me; and if it meets with your approbation, to make your journal a medium of publication, and invite our citizens to communicate such facts relating to the matter as will be interesting to the public. By adopting this course no doubt much valuable information will be obtained, and many hints that will be serviceable to our Representatives in carrying out the wishes of our Legislature embodied in the resolutions.

Timber is not, like cotton and rice, an annual growth. It requires centuries for this crop to mature, and when the forest is once culled over, the crop is forever gathered, for we are altogether too fast a people to think of waiting a hundred years for another crop.

It has been estimated by the timber cutters (by counting the rings or grains of a tree), that it requires from three to four hundred years for it to attain a size sufficient for a mast or spar for a large-sized ship, and perhaps even this may not be a fair criterion, for most of our planters in the pine region know that there are on the lines of their land sapplings now no larger than a man's arm that have the surveyor's mark, made forty years since.

In order that we may at a glance comprehend the bounds of the Pine Belt of our State, that portion which has been culled over, and that which remains uncultured, I have constructed from one of Butt's new maps of the State, a timber chart, which I hand herewith for reference. This chart I will not say is perfectly accurate, there are some few exceptions that I know of.

Gentlemen that have been engaged for years in getting timber, and who own land within what appears to be the culled districts, foreseeing the future value of their forest, will not suffer a tree to be cut, preferring to purchase the trees from their neighbors.

This chart is made from personal observation, and from information derived from what was considered reliable sources; and in order that the public may understand how it is constructed, as well that it may be closely criticised to detect errors, if errors exist, I will briefly explain it:

First—The bounds of the Pine Belt.—Here, perhaps, it would be well to give its whole extent:

Upon a map of the United States, let a line be drawn from the Chesapeake Bay, through Raleigh and Fayetteville, in North Carolina, Cheraw and Columbia, in South Carolina, to a point five miles above Augusta, two miles below Milledgeville, through Macon—the old agency on Flint River, to Columbus—thence across the southern part of Alabama, (the points of which I am not familiar with), and we have its northern and western boundary, and stretching from this to the ocean on the east, and the gulf on the south, over level or gently undulating plains lies the Pine Belt of the South. There are occasionally small bodies of an oak and hickory growth interspersed, and spurs of pine jutting above this line, but so well defined is it, that in places one may toss a pebble from a thick pine forest to a dense oak and hickory growth.

In going down the Georgia Railroad we strike into the pine forest, two miles above Camack, and on the Gordon Railroad, five miles below Milledgeville; and in coming down the Macon and Western R. R., when we see the long blue line of forest stretching across the horizon, we know that Macon is near.

From the seaboard, inland, for a distance of thirty or thirty-five miles, the pines are scattering and of stunted growth, and are worthless for shipping timber. He that has travelled upon our coast, or upon the railroads from Wilmington, north or west, or Charleston to Augusta, or Savannah to Macon, must have observed that the pines are comparatively small.

Now, why is it that this *yellow* or pitch pine growth (for we have several species of pine) is mainly limited between this *base of the mountains* and the sea-coast? Is it because it loves the peculiar soil, or is it because of its main tap root reaching deep into the earth, sometimes eight or nine feet, that it cannot thrive in the rocky region? Will some of your scientific correspondents answer?

Let one chalk out upon the map of the United States the lines indicated above, and he will see that Georgia possesses *more of this pine forest, perhaps, than all the other States put together.*

Second—What proportion of our forest has been culled over?

Here my remarks must not be understood as applying to the indiscriminate cutting every tree or pine, that would make a saw-mill log, but what I do mean is, that the forest has been culled of all the valuable merchantable or shipping timber; say trees that will square fourteen inches or upward.

Commencing on the Savannah, my information is, that all the forest bordering on that river has been culled over for a distance of twelve miles from the river, that it has been culled for a distance of six miles on each side of the Ogeechee river and Central Railroad—and for the same distance on each side of the Canoechee and Choopee rivers, and for a distance of eight to ten miles on each side of the Altamaha, and for six miles each side of the Oconee and Ocamulgee rivers. Obstructions near the mouths of the Santillas have prevented rafts from descending, and have thus protected the forest on these rivers from sharing the same fate as that on all the other streams.

Let lines now be drawn on a map of our State parallel with the rivers at the respective distances above indicated and the intermediate spaces colored, and we have the plan upon which the timber chart is constructed, and which will show at a glance what portions of the forests have been culled, and what remains to draw our future supplies from.

To the people of Savannah this may be of interest, as the public mind there was somewhat agitated in regard to the proper location of the timber depot for the Savannah and Gulf Railroad. Without knowing what conclusion they have come to, or taking part in the controversy, I would say that too much importance cannot be attached to the subject; for, by reference to this chart, it will be seen that the fields from which the city has heretofore received her supplies will have been gleaned over in a few years—the sources drained, and the Savannah and Gulf Railroad, the only avenue left over which she is to receive her supplies of this important article of commerce. The following figures, taken from public documents, show that while hewn timber has almost ceased to be an article of exportation from the ports north of us, the shipments have also fallen off from our own ports, a pretty sure indication that the supplies are getting short.

[*Extracts from Commerce and Navigation, P. D.*]

The following shows the exports (foreign) of hewn timber, from each Collection District—years ending 6th June :

	1856.	1857.	1858.
Wilmington, N. C.....	520 tons.	none tons.	none tons.
Charleston.....	3,197 "	3,334 "	1,933 "
Savannah.....	26,878 "	63,611 "	23,857 "
Brunswick.....		1,518 "	
Fernandina.....			1,400 "
Apalachicola.....		700 "	
Mobile.....	939 "	2,790 "	3,498 "
From all other ports of the United States.....	2,733 "	6,312 "	11,187 "
Total.....	34,260 "	68,965 "	41,174 "
Value.....	\$234,959 "	\$516,735 "	\$292,163 "

*Third—What are the yearly drafts made upon the forest?—*The following, taken from the *Prices Current* and *De Bow's REVIEW*, shows the yearly shipments of lumber, in feet, coastwise and foreign, of our principal ports :

PORTS.	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.
Charleston.....	19,709,798	23,844,650	23,852,417	14,523,581	17,198,771	15,312,128
Savannah.....	49,233,590	23,700,700	34,887,500	44,743,070	27,254,392	37,481,674*
Pensacola.....		16,941,632	21,390,513	27,222,937	31,103,074	30,566,298
Mobile,†.....			17,680,760	10,462,104	11,232,949	9,350,300

* The Savannah export for this year, is taken to August 5th, 1859.

† Besides the above, there was shipped from Mobile, in 1855, of masts and spars, 2,357; of tons of timber, 2,207, and deck plank, 351,860 feet. In 1857, of masts and spars, 1,263; hewn timber, 547½ tons; of deck plank, 160,245 feet. In 1858, 1,164 masts; of hewn timber, 10,796 tons.

The capacity of the mills tributary to the harbor of Pensacola (says that excellent work, *De Bow's REVIEW*), is sufficient to saw three hundred thousand feet per day. Large bodies of pine lands have been purchased in Southern Alabama from the United States Government, for lumber and naval stores.

The above tables are interesting, and fully establish what I have endeavored to show by the chart and this article, *that our pine forests are being rapidly swept away*. They show that while the shipments are increasing from the ports in the Gulf, there is a rapid falling off from the Atlantic ports, and that the *choice hewn* or ton timber has almost ceased to be an article of export from the ports north of us. It shows, too, that they are sweeping down the forest on the Gulf side as if it were inexhaustible. Referring now to the forest of our own State: The Collector's quarterly report, from Darien, shows that the shipments of lumber from that port, nearly, or quite, equal those from Savannah; then we have the shipments from Brunswick, from Jeffersonville, and the Satilla and St. Mary's, which may all reach a like amount, so that it would be a safe calculation to put the shipments of lumber from the Atlantic ports of our State to at least *one hundred millions of feet annually*. To this we may add for home consumption, plantation uses, house building, &c., fully a like amount. Estimating the average yield of one thousand feet of lumber per acre, would show a yearly destruction of our forest from this source of *two hundred thousand acres*.

Upon this point we would gladly have the experience of some of our timber cutters, of what would be a fair average for shipping or merchantable timber, and also for the common saw-mill or ranging timber per acre. Will some of them advise us on this head?

Large as this amount may seem, it is small compared with the yearly amount destroyed by the planter in clearing land. No estimate of this can be made until the census of 1860 is taken.

The tide of emigration is setting so strong upon this pine belt of our State, particularly on its western side, upon the waters of the Chattahoochee and Flint, that commerce must not look there for timber, for in a few years that whole country will be chequered into plantations. So rapid has been the settlements of portions of that country, and so wanton and prodigal have been the planters in regard to the timber, that where, twenty years since, there was an unbroken pine forest, now in places there is a scarcity of timber for fencing.

To some the sight of this wholesale destruction of forests of fine timber is really distressing; not unfrequently will one planter deaden and destroy a thousand acres in one season.

Who are our customers for this vast amount of lumber?—Upon the west we have Texas and Mexico; on the south the West Indies; and every government, on the northern and eastern shores of South America; on the north every State bordering on the coast from Maryland to Maine. The State of Maine, once the largest lumber exporting State of the Union, is now one of our best customers for this timber.

It is entering so largely into the construction of our shipping, that it would be a very expensive, if not a difficult matter to build a vessel without it. The sharp clipper shape of the vessels built of late years, allows this material to be used for planking, where formerly only white oak would answer.

In Europe, we have for our customers, Portugal, Spain, France, Ireland, Scotland, England, and every government bordering upon the Atlantic waters, while it is sent up the Mediterranean to its very eastern shores, and camels are no doubt at this time transporting it to the Holy City. Think of that! Georgia pines slung upon camels' backs going to Jerusalem!

The following table from public documents (commerce and navigation), shows the values drawn from our pine forest and shipped to foreign ports for the past three years:

	1856.	1857.	1858.
Value of Hewn Timber.....	\$234,959	\$516,785	\$292,163
Boards, Plank, Scantling and other Timber.....	729,256	2,001,121	1,158,347
Tar and Pitch.....	235,487	208,610	100,679
Rosin and Turpentine.....	1,222,066	1,544,572	1,464,210
Spirits of Turpentine.....	839,048	741,346	1,089,282
Total.....	\$3,260,816	\$5,012,384	\$4,104,681

Here we have the value of four or five millions dollars yearly, shipped to foreign ports, while the amount consumed in the United States must be at least double.

And this is the forest which we have among us, that to some is a bug-bear; while it is skinned, bled, cut and mangled, yielding to us the nice sum of twelve to fifteen millions of dollars annually, without hardly a thought being bestowed upon the value of the remaining carcass.

4.—GRAPES—NATIVE AND FOREIGN.

A paper on "Grapes," read before the "Aiken Vine-Growing and Horticultural Association," September 15, 1859, by H. W. RAVENEL:

The Grape, like all other domesticated plants long subjected to cultivation, has formed innumerable varieties differing, first: in *size, flavor, color, and time of ripening its fruit*. Second, in *shape and size of leaf*. Third, in general thriftiness and vigor of *growth*. These variations are, however, confined within certain limits; and, through all their varieties, they yet preserve their specific identity, and reveal their parentage and origin.

There are certain bounds within which nature seems to revel in producing changes and combinations of various forms and qualities, but these bounds are never over-stepped.

Species in nature are primordial forms, whose characters remain constant through all time, and which are capable of propagating their kind. Within the limits of these specific characters, there may be variations in minor points, occurring sometimes in the wild state, but oftener through the effects of high culture and artificial treatment. Thus, in the United States, we have a certain number of species of wild grape. According to the best authorities, the number is reduced to four east of the Mississippi. From one or another of these four species are descended all our indigenous varieties. Of these, there are now upward of one hundred in cultivation in the United States, and their numbers will go on increasing as seedlings of good qualities are brought into notice. Many of them, no doubt, will prove valuable acquisitions, either for the table or wine-making, but a large number will be thrown aside. There is such a strong temptation to multiply varieties, either as a source of profit to sellers of the wine, or as a matter of pride to amateur cultivators, that the only corrective for the evil will be a publication, at stated periods, of a list of condemned varieties, as is now done by the United States Pomological Society in the matter of fruit-trees.

I am not aware of any attempt to classify these indigenous varieties, and trace them to their proper parentage, to one of the four native species; nor, perhaps, has the time arrived yet, when it can properly be done from the want of general dissemination, and the difficulty of obtaining many of the latest varieties.

I will, however, give an enumeration of over four American species, with the varieties of each, so far as our present information permits.

NATIVE OR INDIGENOUS GRAPES.

1. *Vitis Labrusca* Linnaeus. *Mz. Ph. De Cand. Ell. Sk.*—From this are descended: Isabella, Catawba, Bland's Madeira, Concord, Diana, Rebecca, To Kalon Anna, Mary Isabel, Ontario, Northern Muscatine, Hartford Prolific, Catawissa, Garrigues, Stetson's Seedling, York Madeira, Hyde's Eliza, Union Village, Early Chocolate, Harvard, Early Black, Green Prolific Kilvington.

2. *Vitis Destevalis* Michaux. *Ph. Ell. Sk. De Cand. Prod.*—From this are descended: Warren, Pauline, Herbemont, Guignard, Clinton, Delaware, Ohio, Marion Treveling, Long Grape or Old House, Elsinborough, Seabrook, Lenoir. (*Black July, Devereux, Thurmond, Sumpter, Lincoln.*)

3. *Vitis Cordifolia* Michaux. *Ph. Ell. Sk. De Cand. Prod.*—I know of no varieties in cultivation from this species. The berries are small and very tart, ripening late in the Fall, known as "Winter or Frost Grape."

4. *Vitis Vulpini* Linnaeus (*V. rotundifolia* Mx. *Ell. Sk.*)—This is known here as "Bullace, Bullet, or Bull Grape," and in Florida and Texas as the "Mus-

tang." The cultivated varieties of this species are known as "Scuppernong," so called after a lake in Eastern North Carolina, where it was first discovered. It is probable there is more than one variety in cultivation under this name, as the so called "Scuppernong" has been discovered in other native localities since. They are all, however, identical in specific characters with the wild parent, and are only to be distinguished by the quality of the fruit. To one or other of these four native species then, may be traced the parentage of all our cultivated grapes. How far the effects of high culture, and the propagation of new seedlings from these improved varieties, may cause them to deviate from their typical state, it is impossible to foresee; but if our botanists are correct in their limitation of species, these variations must be within the specific characters assigned to the species respectively.

There is one prominent character which distinguishes the grapes of the United States from those of the Eastern Hemisphere, and that is in the *Inflorescence*. All the species of American plants are *diöcio polygamores*, that is, some of the vines bear staminate or barren flowers only, and are for ever sterile. Others bear perfect flowers, and are fruitful.

All the species of the Eastern Hemisphere are *Hermaphrodite*, that is, every vine bears perfect flowers, containing stamen and pistils, in the same corolla, and are fruitful. In the absence of other evidence, this fact would be conclusive of the parentage of an unknown seedling, whether it be of exotic or indigenous origin.

FOREIGN GRAPE.

Of the vast number of varieties of the foreign grapes now in cultivation in Europe and the United States, all are referred to the single species, *Vitis vinifera* Linnaeus, a native of the southern parts of Asia.

It has been under cultivation more than a thousand years, and was known under many varieties by the ancients.

Upward of thirty years ago, when Chaptal was Minister of the Interior, there were fourteen hundred varieties enumerated in the Luxemburg catalogue, obtained from France alone. The Geneva catalogue numbered six hundred. Doubtless, they have been much increased since; and as in the propagation of varieties of other fruits by seedlings, there is no limit to the number that may be brought into existence.

De Candolle, in his "Prodromus," enumerates and gives descriptions of eleven other species of vine from the Old World, mostly natives of the southeastern part of Asia, but none of these have been cultivated extensively. The grape of Europe is one species, but of numberless varieties.

Most of the early attempts at Grape culture in this country were with foreign grapes, but all, without exception, have been failures. The foreign grapes (varieties of *Vitis vinifera*) seem, from their constitution, unfitted to our soil and climate. (I here allude to open air culture—under glass they appear to thrive very well). How they will succeed when grafted upon the hardy native vine, remains to be proved. Partial experiments made in Florida, and in this vicinity, are promising of success.

If the cause of failure is the greatest humidity of our climate, grafting on the wild vine will scarcely prove a corrective, as the leaf and fruit are still exposed to the atmospheric influence. If the cause proceeds from uncongeniality of soil, then grafting upon the wild stock will most probably be successful. As this mode of increasing a vineyard for wine-making must necessarily be more tedious and expensive than by cuttings, it is our policy as well as true philosophy, to endeavor, by the raising of seedlings, to obtain varieties best suited to our soil and climate.

Every encouragement should be given for the accomplishment of this end, and our Association has consulted the true interest of all vine-growers, in offering handsome premiums towards that object.

DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1.—THE SOUTHERN PACIFIC RAILROAD.

We make the following extracts from an editorial in the New-Orleans *Picayune* of the 16th inst., in reference to the future management of this enterprise, which is now stated to be relieved from all its embarrassments :

Dr. Fowlkes and his associates, having freed the enterprise from litigation, from pecuniary embarrassments and the various disabilities existing in the form of contracts—having cut off “the dead weight,” in the shape of a large stock liability, that paralyzed its friends and alarmed capitalists who were disconnected with the company—having labored almost against hope to save the most magnificent franchises ever granted, until doubt gave place to promise, and promise ripened into success, now voluntarily and against the solicitations of many stockholders, have determined to place its future control in the hands of the ablest railroad manager in the country, who will bring to the work not only experience, probity, and tried fidelity, but the confidence of the country in his success.

J. Edgar Thompson, of Philadelphia, will soon take charge of the road. He will be assisted by Col. Samuel Tate and Gov. J. C. Jones, no less acceptable to the public, the stockholders and the friends of the road, both in and out of Texas.

No man now living enjoys a higher reputation as a railroad manager and a skilful engineer than J. Edgar Thompson. Hundreds and thousands so absolutely confide in his capability, that they will invest their capital in whatever enterprise he will give the sanction of his name.

Dr. Fowlkes will complete the arrangements within thirty or forty days; which insure the acceptance of the presidency and the actual entrance upon its arduous duties by J. Edgar Thompson. He has done his part fully and most generously toward this end. If in all this he has served his own interest, he has also served the public and protected and saved the stockholders. The services of Mr. Thompson secured, the nature of the future management of the road is in part outlined.

Dr. Fowlkes proposes—and this proposition has the sanction of Mr. Thompson—to sell \$1,500,000 of the stock of the company to purchase one thousand laborers for the construction of the road through Texas. Of this sum, \$500,000 has been allotted to Texas, and \$100,000 was subscribed within a week after the election of the new directors. Full confidence is entertained by Dr. Fowlkes, and is expressed by the friends of the road in Texas, that \$500,000 will be speedily subscribed by its citizens—a result pregnant with favorable results to the company. To the public and stockholders out of Texas \$1,000,000 of the stock is offered. Within the next sixty days, it is believed, a large portion of this amount will be subscribed. A thousand dollars of the stock was taken at par in this city, yesterday. This money, to be invested in labor to construct and work the road, is not sunk when invested.

We had occasion, some weeks since, to contrast the success of Northern and Southern railroad enterprises, when we showed, from statistics, that the leading element of the superior success of our roads was their construction by slave labor. Experience has settled the wisdom of this policy, and in the future prosecution of the work of the Southern Pacific Road, the plan of depending on this class of labor is to be carried into more perfect execution. The investment is an asset of the company, while the labor of one thousand blacks is more effective than a similar strength of uncontrollable white men.

So far as this plan has come to be understood, it meets with general approval. Entire unanimity of feeling exists in Texas on all the subjects pertaining to the management of the road, between what is known as the “New” and the “Old” companies; also, between the new directors and the authorities of the State, the judicial, legislative and executive departments.

We hail with high satisfaction—and it will add in no small degree to the successful management of the road—the information that Col. Samuel Tate is to take charge of the Land Department of the company, which is its basis of wealth and power. Not less acceptable is the appointment of Gov. J. C. Jones, as General Agent of the company, who is second to no man in America for the position he holds, and the fidelity with which he discharges every duty devolving upon him.

Every pledge is offered, that prudence, economy and far reaching intelligence, will mark the future management of the company. The road has gradually grown into a national enterprise. This Southern route has the start of all other western lines proposed, and as it presents peculiar advantages of climate, and a territory singularly fruitful in the products of the field or of the mine, we cannot but doubt it will become the route upon which the financial strength of the nation will be concentrated.

2.—MEMPHIS AND CHARLESTON RAILROAD.

For the year ending July, 1859, the receipts and expenditures in the operative department, have been as follows:—

Receipts from Passengers.....	\$751,923 01
“ “ Freight.....	509,991 66
“ “ Mails.....	55,175 00
“ “ Express.....	10,974 40
“ “ Rents and Privileges.....	2,748 33
	<hr/>
	\$1,330,812 40
Less Road Expenses—E. Division.....	245,198 53
“ “ W. Division.....	307,582 87
	<hr/>
	552,776 40
Net Receipts of Road, for fiscal year ending June 30, 1859.....	<hr/>
	\$778,036 00

This sum is equal to over to 12½ per cent. upon the entire cost of the road and equipment, and everything thereto, as shown in another portion of this Report, amounting to \$6,188,033 49. The operating expenses for the year, of \$552,776 40, is a fraction under 42 per cent. of the gross receipts.

This is much below the average per cent. of expenses of operating railroads in the United States, and it might be inferred that this low per cent. of expenses had been attained at the expense of the road bed and machinery, but this inference would be wholly at variance with the facts, as no pains or expense has been spared to keep both road bed and machinery in perfect order; and the Board flatter themselves, that, an examination of each will satisfy every stockholder, that they will compare favorably with the best managed railroads in the United States.

It will be recollected that the estimate of the Board in their Seventh Annual Report, for the year just closed, was, for gross receipts, \$1,200,000; expenses, \$540,000; net earnings, \$660,000; thus it will be seen, that the gross receipts have exceeded their estimate, \$130,812 40; and the net earnings, \$118,036 00. This has been caused, in a great measure, by a very large cotton crop, and an extraordinary prosperity in our commercial and monetary affairs generally.

From the net earnings of the Road for the past year, of. \$778,036 00

Must be deducted the following items:

Interest paid on Company Bonds.....	\$107,704 35
Interest on State Tennessee Bonds.....	66,000 00
Interest and Exchange on Floating Debt.....	22,133 75
	<hr/>
	195,838 10
Leaving net profits of.....	<hr/>
	\$582,197 90

After paying interest and exchange on funded and floating debt, or 26 per cent. on the original capital paid in by the stockholders, of \$2,237,665 00, as shown by the Treasurer's balance sheet.

This makes the net earnings of the road, from the commencement of operations to 30th June, 1859, after charging off all interest and exchange on borrowed capital, as follows :

Profit and Loss, 30th June, 1858.....	\$664,644 40
Net Profits, 30th June, 1858, to 30th June, 1859.....	778,086 40
Forfeited stock to 30th June, 1859.....	17,768 66
	<hr/>
	\$1,460,449 46
Less interest on Company's Bonds for the past year.....	\$107,704 35
Less interest on State Tennessee Bonds for the past year.....	66,000 00
Less interest on Floating Debt for the past year.....	22,133 75
	<hr/>
	195,838 10
Netting.....	\$1,264,611 36

Which will stand to the credit of profit and loss, equal to 56½ per cent. on original capital stock paid in by the stockholders, after 30th June, 1859. This sum has been used in constructing and equipping the road, and is really a part of your capital, and the original stockholders are entitled to a stock dividend to that extent, when the floating debt is paid.

8.—FLORIDA RAILROADS.

Very few of our State, and many even in it, are not aware of the rapid strides *internal improvements* have and are making. From the following synopsis of the number of miles *graded and ironed*, it will be seen that we are ahead of some of our sister States, and making rapid progress to overtake others. In January, 1855, we had twenty-one miles from Tallahassee to St. Mark's, of "common flat rail"—a poor apology for a railroad ;—it has since been re-graded and re-ironed with heavy rail ; the Pensacola and Georgia is graded to the Suwannee, and is in process of rapid completion to Lake City—distance one hundred and six miles—twenty-eight miles ironed, and the iron purchased for the remaining seventy-eight miles ; the Central is graded from Lake City to Jacksonville, sixty miles—forty miles ironed, and the iron purchased for the balance ; the Florida is graded from Fernandina to Cedar Keys, one hundred and fifty-four miles—one hundred and twenty-two miles ironed, and the iron purchased for the remainder ; the Florida end of the Alabama and Florida railroad, fifteen miles ironed, and the iron purchased for the remainder. So we have two hundred and twenty-six miles ironed, and three hundred and forty-one graded, and the iron purchased for one hundred and fifty-eight miles more, besides the short branch from the Pensacola and Georgia road to Monticello, of three miles, and the branch now being graded from the Florida road to Ocala. We get from that excellent paper the *Floridian*, the distance above as to the roads finished and graded in the East and Middle Florida—correcting, however, its statement, by adding fifteen miles ironed and in fine running order from Pensacola in the direction of Montgomery, so that the persons at a distance may know the number of miles actually completed—as well as the additional fact (perhaps unknown to the *Floridian* and *Journal*) that the balance of the iron for our end of the Alabama and Florida road is purchased, and is now on its way to our city.

From the above statement, it will be seen that our people are no *laggards*, but have accomplished as much, in fact more, in four and a half years, than the same population have accomplished any where in the Union ; and the additional fact must be taken into consideration, that we have as much, if not more sea-

board, than all the Atlantic States combined, and hence we are less dependent on railroads for home purposes than any other State; but in order to have rapid and convenient intercourse with our sister States, and mutually benefit each by building up our seaboard cities, and giving them access to our fine harbors for their produce and importations, we have thus in so short a time, with a very small population, made giant strides in the line of railroads.—*Pensacola Observer*.

4.—BLUE RIDGE RAILROAD—SOUTH CAROLINA ENTERPRISE.

After a pleasant trip on the Greenville and Columbia Railroad, which owes its *origin, its progress, and completion*, to Hon. Judge John Belton O'Neill, so distinguished a gentleman in the judiciary and literature, in all that contributes to the great morals of the country, in temperance, in constitutional order, in conservatism, and in all respects a man of *work and character*, I find myself again happily among my friends in the beautiful city of Columbia.

I met Hon. Thomas C. Perrin, the president of the road, and Sup. E. F. R. worth, gentlemen who have conducted the work, after its completion, with so much *skill and success*, and who are now looking forward to the great connection which is in progress from Anderson C. H. to Knoxville, Tenn., fostered by the State of South Carolina, and destined by its opening into the extensive region of the Mississippi and Ohio rivers, to bring into the State of South Carolina the products of that great country, and thus realize the expectations of the great and distinguished men who originated the Louisville, Cincinnati, and Charleston Railroad, which in times past elicited the interest and anxiety of the greatest men of the country.

On the subject of this great Southern and National improvement there was a convention held on the 6th day of July, 1856, at Knoxville, Tenn., numbering 380 delegates from nine States. "Never did any improvement combine so many interests, or call forth such an array of talents in its behalf. The illustrious Calhoun, one of the great triumvirate, whose talent for more than a quarter of a century balanced and held in check the powers of the federal government, took a conspicuous part in the public meetings and newspaper discussions, exhibiting in this, as in all the subjects which he touched, his wonderful prescience and sagacity, and with his characteristic zeal and ardor, actually doffed his senatorial robes and took the field as a road man."

For this interesting reminiscence I am indebted to report of Hon. Walter Gwynn, 1856, a graduate of West Point, who, while he was in the army, which was ten years after he was graduated, was employed in the engineer department, and has devoted thirty-five years of his life to the great subject of the internal improvements of his country, commencing with the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, and running through all the great improvements of the South. This would seem to indicate that Mr. Gwynn is an old man, but I could not discover any gray hair or other evidence of age. Such is the result of a useful life, employed in the wholesome exercise of advancing the field, the great interest of the country. I have read all the reports of the Hon. Judge Edward Frost and Hon. Walter Gwynn with great interest, and would commend them to the commercial men and patriots of the South.

From a recent report of the Hon. Walter Gwynn, I learn that about one half of the Blue Ridge Railroad has been executed. He says:

"In *South Carolina* rather more than three fourths of the grading have been done. Of the tunnel excavation, over six tenths in cubic yards, and seven tenths in lineal feet have been completed; and of the square drain masonry, three fourths; and of the bridge masonry, two thirds are done, and one fourth of the track laid.

"In *Georgia* upward of seven seventeenths of the grading, a fraction over one seventh of the tunnel excavation, two thirds of the square drain masonry, and two thirds of the bridge masonry, have been done.

The combined length of the road in *South Carolina and Georgia* is but one

third of the entire length; and yet its cost will be fifty-eight per cent. of the whole cost of the road.

"In *Tennessee* about thirteen miles of the track have been graded, and the masonry between Knoxville and Marysville, a distance of sixteen miles, has been completed, with the exception of the abutments and piers on the Holston and Little rivers and Pistol creek, and they are in a state of great forwardness. The distance between Knoxville and Marysville is thirty per cent. of the length of the road in *Tennessee*, and the cost of the grading and masonry was forty-one per cent. of the cost in that State, according to the original estimate."

He also states that a careful and most minute estimate had been made of the quantity and cost of the parts composing every description of work done and remaining to be done in South Carolina, Georgia, and *Tennessee*, between Knoxville and Marysville, which compose 64 per cent. of the cost of the entire road, according to the original estimate. And that this revised estimate had been compared with corresponding component parts of the work embraced in the original estimate, and the comparison showed that the road would be built within the original estimates.

The result of the operations of the present year exhibits a rising over the revised estimates of last year.

He feels confident, therefore, that his estimate is a very correct one.

It is not my purpose to write a *eulogium* upon this engineer, but I felt it due to merit to make this statement, and I deem it proper further to say, that all the works which he has built have been within his estimates.

And from a report of his (1836) which I have read, I observe he recommends the use of the telegraph to supply on a single track the want of a double track, which I believe is the first recommendation of the kind ever made.

Although this great work "will reimburse many times over in the activity and vigor it will bring to the great trade of Charleston, in the extension of her foreign and internal commerce, in the increase of the agricultural products of the State, and in the rise of real estate," nevertheless, in the course of my travels throughout the State, I have found some who, like our progenitors who went to war upon the stamp act, are opposed to *taxation*, and therefore a little opposed to the Blue Ridge railroad, but, in the words of the distinguished engineer before referred to, I would say, that "I cannot conceive upon what principles a policy can be based, that would arrest the onward march of a work already nearly half executed, and promising results as grand and brilliant as ever followed in the rear of any improvement whatsoever."

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

THE FURMAN UNIVERSITY AT GREENVILLE COURT-HOUSE, SOUTH CAROLINA—ITS HISTORY, CONDITION, AND PROSPECTS.

BY PROF. G. H. STUECKRATH.

The Furman University is a seminary of learning founded by the Baptists of South Carolina. It bears its name in honor of the Rev. Richard Furman, D. D., of Charleston, who was for more than half a century a *laborious, useful*, and most highly esteemed minister of the Gospel, and the leading mind in the denomination in South Carolina.

As the first president of the Baptist General Convention in the United States, Dr. Furman projected and urged the establishment of a general Theological Seminary, to be located at the seat of government, with local tributary institutions of inferior grade. In accordance with this plan, a seminary was commenced in Philadelphia, which was intended to be transferred, and was afterward transferred to Washington-city, D. C., and in South Carolina a subsidiary establish-

ment was founded, which was styled by the Baptist Convention of the State, "*The Furman Academy*."

Through the influence of others the plan of the central seminary was afterward modified, and the foundation laid of *the Columbia College*. Imprudent counsels prevailing, heavy debts were incurred, and the plan of the original author of the enterprise was lost sight of.

Theological schools now arose at other points, and "*Furman Academy*," after some enlargement of its plan, became "*Furman Theological Institution*." During an existence of more than thirty years, quite a number of young ministers received more or less training in a course of general and of sacred learning. The following are the names of the gentlemen who held office as instructors: Prof. Joseph A. Warne, Prof. Samuel Furman, Prof. Jesse Hartwell, Prof. Wm. Hooper, Prof. J. S. Maginsis, Prof. J. L. Reynolds, Prof. Jeremiah Chaplin, Prof. J. S. Mims, Prof. J. C. Furman, Prof. P. C. Edwards.

During the administration of the three last-named professors, it was proposed to engraft upon the theological institution a collegiate and an academical department, and in connection with this change it was proposed to transfer the establishment, with a new name, to another location. The proposal met with favor; a charter was obtained, and, in 1852, Furman University made a beginning in the town of Greenville.

Funds amounting in all to \$150,000 have been contributed, and efforts are still in progress for its *increased* endowment. Within the last few years the necessity of providing *at the South* for the more complete education of young men looking forward to the Christian ministry, having been more deeply felt by the Southern Baptists, the attempt has been made to accomplish this design. The board of trustees of the University tendered the amount of funds for theological education, (near \$30,000) in their hands, as the nucleus of a contribution of \$100,000, to be made by the State, on condition of an equal amount being raised by the other Southern States. The Southern Central Baptist Theological Seminary, with the South Carolina endowment completed, and the endowment of the other States in progress, has just been opened under the auspices of four professors, and with very encouraging prospects; as a consequence of this, the Theological Department of the University has been suspended.

As at present organized, the University consists of a collegiate and a preparatory department, with five professors and two tutors. The *range* of instruction is as large as that which obtains in the first class colleges of our country.

Adopting as a general outline the plan of organization of the Virginia University (of which institution, the professor of mathematics, C. H. Judson, is a graduate), the University is divided into six schools, viz.:

- I. Of Ancient Languages and Literature.
- II. Of Mathematics and Mechanical Philosophy.
- III. Of Natural Philosophy and Descriptive Astronomy.
- IV. Of Chemistry and Natural History.
- V. Of Logic, Rhetoric, and the Evidence of Christianity.
- VI. Of Intellectual and Moral Philosophy.

In the Department of Modern Languages instruction has also been imparted in French and German.

The University has the credit of having introduced into South Carolina the plan of *written examinations*, as the test of proficiency. No student obtains a diploma as a matter of course at the close of a term of years. As soon as he is prepared, and not until then, can he gain the honor of the institution. The consequence is, as in every other case, where the same means are resorted to to secure the interests of sound education, the number of graduates is small. But they are likely to be *marked men*. The adoption of this system by a young and imperfectly endowed institution, fatal as it is to an easy popularity, is a noble tribute to the high interests of *true learning*.

This young establishment has designedly put *one* principle to a practical test, the results of which entitle it to serious attention from the friends of education and of the young, throughout our country. It is the rejection of the dormitory

system and boarding in commons. This ruinous relic of an old system has been banished. The students are domiciliated in private families. They are thus kept in smaller bodies and enjoy the restraining and refining power of the family. The best substitute that can be provided for the influence of their own homes is thus thrown around them, and as a body they are well-behaved to a proverb. Intelligent observers have frequently remarked upon the singular propriety of demeanor characterizing so large a body of young men.

Another feature in the plan of this institution deserves notice.

We refer to the fact, that the power of discipline is in the hands of the Faculty, and that the Board of Trustees never interferes. All temptation to a recusant spirit to carry his complaints before another body than the Faculty is thus cut off—the dignity of the administration of the Faculty is preserved. Hence, doubtless, in part has arisen the fact that nothing like collision between Faculty and students occurs.

But in addition to this, it ought to be observed, that the Faculty have aimed to bring the moral element into fullest play in the government of the University.

The students are treated as incapable of anything *ungentlemanly*, until one proves himself so. His declarations are received as *true*; his conduct is spied with no humiliating surveillance. When it is found that any one has violated his pledge to obey the rules, it is treated as a grave offence; if he persists, or if he resorts to falsehood, he is quietly sent home, on the principle that *he* is not a fit companion for the other students. Mere idleness is a sufficient reason for sending a student away.

It may seem to be objectionable that this Institution is *denominational*.

The answer is: that it is only by denominational action that religious men can provide for educational interests. It is known that in the exercise of their professional functions, the professors in Furman University have been characterized by a *careful* avoidance of everything like sectarianism. At the same time, as religious men, holding office by the appointment of a religious body, they feel that they can approach their students with perfect freedom, in the application of those great motives, which are supplied to human action by revealed religion, and without doubt, it is because they thus treat with their pupils, as men earnestly set upon the highest interests of those committed to their charge, that the sentiment of respect and affection toward their instructors has become an obvious characteristic of the students of Furman University.

DEPARTMENT OF MISCELLANY.

1.—NEGROES IN A STATE OF FREEDOM AT THE NORTH AND IN ENGLAND.

We have before us two *recent* very important authorities upon the condition of the ebony race in a state of freedom at the North and in the British West Indies. What say Exeter and Faneuil Halls!

NO. 1.—FROM THE PHILADELPHIA NORTH AMERICAN (BLACK REPUBLICAN).

If there is any one fact established by steadily accumulating evidence, it is that the free negro cannot find a congenial home in the United States. He is an exotic among us, and all the efforts of philanthropists to naturalize him on American soil and under American skies have failed. We know that it is common to attribute this failure to the prejudice of the whites, which defeats all the attempts made to improve radically and permanently the condition of the blacks but after allowing to this cause all the influence which it deserves, it must be admitted that it does not explain the almost universal degradation of the colored

population in the free States, and we must look beyond prejudice and social ostracism, and the unequal legislation which may be supposed to flow from these for some deeper explanation—one which we believe is to be found in the constitution of the negro himself.

It is a great mistake to suppose that the mere circumstance of removing the political disabilities under which any particular class may happen to labor is sufficient, of itself, to alter and improve their condition. The most that liberal institutions and laws can do is, to leave men free to the exercise and development of their faculties in general; and, according to the nature of these faculties, and the innate qualities of the soul, will be the state of the man and of society resulting. Now, so far as the colored population of most of the free States are concerned, there are no laws that trammel their faculties, or limit the sphere of their industry. They are at liberty to pursue most callings, and to accumulate property. The laws extend protection to the person and property of the colored man as they do to the white. And to prove this, if proof were needed, it would be easy to mention the names of a few persons belonging to this class, who have grown rich by honest industry. And in the face of such a state of things, when we find the great bulk of our colored population, ninety-nine in a hundred, making a precarious livelihood by contentedly performing the most menial offices, or living in idleness and wretchedness, we can hardly fail to attribute it to characteristics of their own. It cannot be doubted that enough sympathy is felt for our colored people, to furnish them with encouragement and patronage, if they had the enterprise to become good mechanics and laborers, and the energy to compete with the white laborer. And besides, in the North, there is usually such a demand for labor as to absorb the supply, and no well-qualified workman, unless in periods of depression, is unemployed. But we see the blacks daily driven from avocations once deemed almost exclusively their own. It is long since they have flourished in any of the trades, if they ever pursued them with success. Within a few years they have ceased to be hackney coachmen and draymen: and they are now almost displaced as stevedores. They are rapidly losing their places as barbers and servants. Ten families employ white servants now, where one did twenty years ago. Whatever explanation may be given of these facts, the facts themselves cannot be denied; and what is to be done with our colored population, unless they can be induced to return as colonists to the native land of their race, or seek some other tropical region, baffles the wisest of us to say.

We are led to these remarks, by reflecting on the great reluctance displayed by the people of the new States to have free negroes settle among them. There is something more in this than mere prejudice or jealousy. It is exhibited in places where the political sentiments of the people are as diverse as in Kansas, Oregon, and Iowa. It seems as if it were to become a rule, in framing a constitution for a new State, to prohibit the residence of free negroes. In the case of a slave State it is not difficult to understand this. The presence of the free negro is disadvantageous to the slave. And, besides, the policy of the slave State is to discourage manumission, which draws from the resources of the State by diminishing the number of laborers. But in a free State, where emigration is invited by holding out every inducement to the inhabitants of the old States and to foreigners, this aversion to the presence of colored people can only be explained by the opinion that has obtained, almost universally, that they cannot become useful citizens of the United States, or, in other words, that they cannot compete, on equal terms, with the white races.

This opinion is undoubtedly founded on observation. It has come to prevail in the free States, in spite of theories—we had almost said, in defiance of the wishes of good men everywhere. And it is of the utmost importance that this truth should be fully recognized by humane and philanthropic men. We believe that all labors directed to the promotion of the welfare of the free colored man, as well as the slave population of this country, will miserably fail, unless this truth is borne in mind. We applaud to the echo the movement made in Russia by the czar to enfranchise the peasant, and raise the serf to the dignity of a free man; and this, because there is no natural difference between the Russian land-

lord and his servant attached to the soil. The latter possesses all the capabilities belonging to the former, and needs only that chance of development which the restrictions imposed by the laws forbade them to enjoy. But the perplexing problem which we in the United States must bring to a practical solution, is what is to be done for a race which, in the absence of prohibitory laws, can make no headway whatever for itself; or, at least, none in the presence of a race of superior intellectual force and energy? We see new communities springing up, and absolutely prohibiting the residence of a class, marked by peculiar physical and moral characteristics, among them, on the conviction that its members must be a burden on their resources. We see the same class at our own doors, as a body, daily becoming more helpless. Of all questions, none deserves more to be well pondered, than that which relates to the disposition to be made of the negroes on this American continent. Let not a hasty judgment pronounce their case utterly hopeless; nor, on the other hand, let false theories respecting the equal intellectual and moral forces of the races deceive into a mistaken and injurious policy.

No. 2.—FROM THE LONDON TIMES.

There is no blinking the truth. Years of bitter experience—years of hope deferred, of self-devotion unrequited, of poverty, of humiliation, of prayers unanswered, of sufferings derided, of insults unresented, of contumely patiently endured—have convinced us of the truth. It must be spoken out, loudly and energetically, despite the wild mockings of “howling cant.” The freed West India negro slave will not till the soil for wages; the free son of the ex-slave is as obstinate as his sire. He will cultivate lands which he has not bought for his own yams, mangoes, and plantains. These satisfy his wants; he does not care for yours. Cotton, and sugar, and coffee, and tobacco—he cares little for them. And what matters it to him that the Englishman has sunk his thousands and tens of thousands on mills, machinery, &c., which now totter on the languishing estate, that for years has only returned beggary and debt. He eats his yams, and sniggers at “Buckra.”

We know not why this should be; but it is so. The negro has been bought with a price, the price of English taxation and English toil. He has been “redeemed from bondage” by the sweat and travail of some millions of hard-working Englishmen. Twenty millions of pounds sterling—one hundred millions of dollars—have been distilled from the brains and muscles of the free English borer, of every degree, to fashion the West Indian negro into a “free and independent laborer.” “Free and independent” enough he has become, God nows, but laborer he is not; and so far as we can see, he never will be. He will sing hymns and quote texts, but honest, steady industry, he not only detests but despises. We wish to Heaven that some people in England—neither government, people, nor parsons, nor clergymen—but some just minded, honest-hearted and clear-sighted men, would go out to some of the islands—say Jamaica, Dominica, or Antigua, not for a month or three months, but for a year—would watch the precious protégé of English philanthropy, the freed negro, in his daily hab its; would watch him as he lazily plants his little squatting; would see him as he proudly rejects agricultural or domestic service, or accepts it only at wages ludicrously disproportionate to the value of his work. We wish, too, they would watch him while, with a hide thicker than that of a hippopotamus, and a body to which fervid heat is a comfort rather than an annoyance, he droningly lounges over the prescribed task, on which the intrepid Englishman, uninured to the burning sun, consumes his impatient energy, and too often sacrifices his life. We wish they would go out and view the negro in all the blazonry of his idleness, his pride, his ingratitude, contemptuously sneering at the industry of that race which made him free, and then come home and teach the memorable lesson of their experience to the fanatics who have perverted him into what he is.

2.—FRAUDS IN FOOD AND MEDICINE.

In the Pharmaceutical Convention, which was in session at Boston lately, a report was read upon the adulterations of food and medicine in this country. The statements, which are based on actual examination and analyses of articles

sold at the groceries and drug shops, are in many instances quite startling. Truly we know very little about what we daily eat and drink. Almost everything capable of adulteration, the price of which makes it an object to practise frauds, has been and is adulterated, very frequently, if not generally. Some of these adulterations, such as the mixture of starch with cream of tartar, are harmless in their effects. They are simply frauds. But others are positively pernicious, and the continued use of the corrupted articles cannot fail to be detrimental to health. Some of them are positively poisonous, and disease and death have been directly traced to them.

The list of adulterated and substituted articles given in the report would astonish most people. We quote in brief a few of the articles in most common use. Flour and bread are adulterated and rendered unwholesome by hydrated sulphate of lime, plaster of Paris, and alum; tea and snuff with chromate of lead; custard powders with the same; cayenne and curry powder with red oxide of lead; pickles and bottled fruits with sulphate of copper and verdigris; vinegar with sulphuric acid; sugar with sand and plaster of Paris; milk with chalk, sheep's brains, and ground tumeric; chocolate with rice, flour, starch, red lead, and various other substances; mustard with tumeric and flour; butter with potato starch, mutton tallow, and sugar of lead. A fictitious tapioca is made wholly of potato starch. Cream of tartar is adulterated with a variety of articles, some of them highly injurious, such as tartrate of lime, chalk, powdered marble, nitrate of potassa, alum, etc. Some specimens examined were two thirds starch. The large amounts of this article used in modern cooking make its adulteration a source of great profit to the manufacturer and dealer, but of vast harm to the community.

The committee ascertained that an article of ground coffee sold as "fine old Java," was compounded at the mill as follows: for every 100 pounds there are 60 pounds of peas, 20 pounds of chicory, and 20 pounds of coffee. A member of the convention said that it was within his knowledge that one firm in New-York used annually 100 tons soda ash in manufacturing saleratus, and other establishments used smaller quantities.

Drugs are adulterated with various substances; in New-York the wholesale dealers use ship bread and sawdust extensively; in Boston mostly corn meal and bran. Some of the formulas regularly used by a New-York house in preparing their adulterations, were as follows:

Powdered Cape Aloes—Cape aloes dried, 100 lbs.; ship biscuit, 100 lbs.; curcuma q. s. to color.

Common Ginger—African Ginger, 200 lbs.; capsicum hulls, 25 lbs.; biscuit, 100 lbs.; curcuma q. s. to color.

Ipecac powdered—Ipecac, 100 lbs.; ship biscuit 25 to 40 lbs.

Opium powdered—Turkey opium, 50 lbs.; Egyptian opium 25 lbs.; biscuit, 40 lbs.

Turkey Rhubarb is manufactured from East India rhubarb by turning it down in a lathe to the right shape. The common medicines, balsam copaiva, aloes, chloroform, tartar emetic, alcohol, etc., are subjected to various cheap adulterations, and there is hardly an article of common demand in the apothecary shop that escapes this process. The counterfeiting of liquors is notorious and well understood.

3.—THE PRAIRIES OF THE WEST.

We all write and speak of the prairies of the West, but no man can have an idea of them, until he has seen them in all their variety in Illinois. The real prairie is at this season of the year an unbroken sea of green, and this great landscape grows majestic from its vast extent. Far as the eye can reach, in every direction, boundless as the view at sea when the billows are hushed, not a tree or dwelling in sight, these prairies stretch away in their grandeur; and when the change comes, when a group of trees is seen, or a solitary dwelling fills the void, the effect is in no sense weakened. To us, it was the most wondrous prospect upon which we had ever gazed, and, as we glided on for

hours with this unchanged and magnificent view before us, we wondered that the fashionable tide of travel did not set in this direction. As we passed along near one of the towns, we saw a large pic-nic party emerging from the open prairie with immense bouquets of prairie flowers, which bloom in great variety and beauty at this season. We saw no rose, but 'almost every variety of small flowers seen at the East may be found here, in a profusion which is wonderful.

The formation of the prairies is accounted for on various hypotheses, but the most natural and probable is the idea that they resulted from the deposits of water by which the land was, ages ago, covered. The clay and gravel which lie beneath have no peculiar qualities; but they are covered by a loam from twelve to thirty-six inches in depth, which is of inexhaustible fertility. It has been produced by the constant springing up and rotting down of prairie grass, which has been going on for ages. One of the most notable characteristics of the prairies is, their destitution of vegetation, except in the multitude of rank grasses and flowers to which we have referred; but this is caused by the continual fires which sweep over the plains. Every fall these vast plains are burned over, but when this is prevented by the settlement of the country, forests will spring up in great rapidity. There are at present no indications that the soil can be worn out. It requires no manure, and will yield its crops so readily that the farming population pay too little attention to its proper cultivation. All over Illinois there are gross complaints of the careless manner in which agricultural operations are carried on; and, so far as our observation extended, the charge was substantiated. There are no barns anywhere, and the grain lies scattered about with unparalleled waste.—*Newark Mercury*.

4.—NEWLY DISCOVERED GOLD MINES IN GEORGIA.

Col. N. J. Scott of Auburn, Alabama, on his return from New-York, favored our sanctum with a visit a day or two since, and left with us a circular, from which we gather the following facts: Messrs. Mahone & King have purchased the Glade mines near Altoona in Cass county, Ga. The value of these mines is incalculable; Col. Scott informed us that he was offered while at the North, *three hundred thousand dollars, for three eighths interest in these mines*, by responsible parties and refused it. Professor John Darby, a man of long experience and practical knowledge in natural science, has examined these mines *personally*, and gives his testimony in favor of their vast richness. He says:

"The great Altoona branch, in Cass county, Georgia, rises in this property, from which millions of dollars have been taken out from 1832 to the present time; and this branch and other branches rising in this property would now yield profitable results, in getting what gold was left from the rude and imperfect working of former years.

There are three principal gold veins running through this property, all of which have been tested and gave the most gratifying results.

I have been over the gold-bearing region of Georgia as well as of other States, and have studied their geology, and I have no hesitation in saying, that I have seen nothing to equal the indications of the Mahone & King mines. I entered the opening made on one of the veins, with a workman, and took out more than fifty dollars of gold in less than thirty minutes' labor.

There are three hundred and twenty acres of land in this property, and the length of the three veins cannot be less than two miles, and the amount of deposit gold is in large quantity. I have given the above from memory, at the request of parties interested, and it is not above what a strict examination will bear out. The specimens that it has yielded in nuggets of gold taken from the quartz rock weighing as high as eighteen or nineteen dwts., are seldom equalled by the most productive regions of the globe, and that too, under circumstances the least favorable to its proper development. Those desirous of engaging in mining operations for gold, need not go to California or New South Wales, but in the State of Georgia may find as safe investment of capital as the world affords; nature has planted it there, it cannot deceive."

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

1.—Through the courtesy of the publishers we have received a copy of the following work :

Biographical Sketches of the Bench and Bar of South Carolina. By J. Belton O'Neill, LL. D., President of the Law Court of Appeals and the Court of Errors. Charleston, S. C. : S. G. Courtney & Co. 2 vols. 1859.

This is a very handsome contribution to Southern literature, from an enterprising Southern house. The author, Judge O'Neill, is well known to the country as one of the ablest jurists and purest-minded men, and has in this, as in many other instances, performed an acceptable service to his profession, and to men of letters everywhere. We anticipate an extensive circulation for the work, not only in South Carolina, but throughout the Southwest. It contains the fee bill of 1791, and a catalogue of all the attorneys ever admitted to practice in the State. The biographical department includes about one hundred and fifty names. We have only space to give those of the Judges, Chancellors, etc., omitting the names of more than a hundred leading lawyers :

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RECORDERS.—Jacob Axson, Wm. Drayton, G. B. Eckhard, Mitchel King, Samuel Prioleau.

SEVERAL interesting articles are on hand for the January number, having been received too late for the present month.

By the time that the December No. of the REVIEW shall be issued, we hope to be found in our office at New-Orleans, fully prepared for the occupations of the winter, and ready to extend a hearty welcome to such of our friends from the interior as may repair for pleasure or for business to that enterprising emporium. At this moment we are enjoying a pleasant relaxation in South Carolina, among the friends and associates of early years, and shall have some interesting notes to incorporate in our pages, as soon as we can find a moment to write them out. Our visit by the Savannah railroad to the rice plantations, and to Edisto, furnished much valuable matter, and enabled us to enjoy the hospitality of many excellent gentlemen, among whom Governor Aiken stands pre-eminent. But of this hereafter.

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Aug. 1, " 16 "	Oct. 1, " 32 "

I give you permission to make such use of this statement as you may think proper. I am, with respect, yours truly,

PAUL MORPHY.

Wilton Bluff, South Carolina, Oct. 20th, 1859.

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I have written the above from a sense of duty, and with many sincere wishes for your continued prosperity, I remain,

Your ob't servant,

A. L. HAMILTON.

Boston, August 20th, 1859.

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The practical results attending the use of this GUANO have been most remarkable, and from its permanent action on the soil it takes precedence over all others.

The most gratifying testimonials are being received by us daily from Farmers who have used it this season, fully endorsing all the former testimonials of its wonderful virtues. One of the valuable characteristics of this GUANO is that it is not affected by drought.

All parties purchasing of agents or dealers, should be particular to see that every package bears the name and trade-mark of the Company.

For particulars address,

C. S. MARSHALL, President American Guano Co.,

66 WILLIAM-STREET, N. Y.;

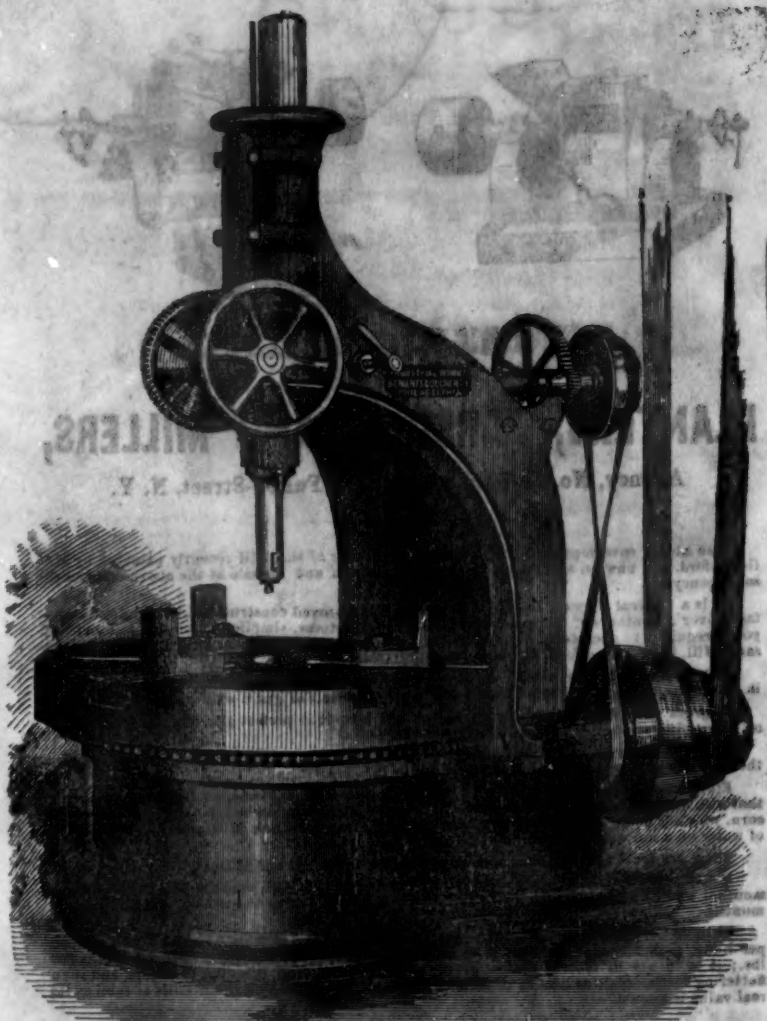
OR, THE FOLLOWING PRINCIPAL AGENTS:

ALLEN & NEEDLES, Philadelphia,
A. H. ANGELL & CO., Baltimore,
WM. B. HASELTINE, Boston,

FELIX H. CAVE, Richmond, Va.,
THOS. BRANCH & SON, Petersburg,
Va.

Having contracted with G. B. LAMAR, Esq., of New-York, and WILLIAM W. CREEVER, of Georgia, to supply the States of North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Tennessee, and Florida, they will be constantly supplied with any quantity required for those States; their Agents in the sea-ports being, DE ROSSET, BROWN & Co., Wilmington, North Carolina; WARDLAW, WALKER & Co., Charleston, S. C.; C. A. L. LAMAR, Savannah; PRATT & MCKENZIE, Apalachicola, Fla.; H. O. BREWER & Co., Mobile, Ala. and, also, Agents in every town in each of those States.

oct-17



MACHINISTS' TOOLS.

BEMENT & DOUGHERTY,

INDUSTRIAL WORKS,

2029 CALLOWHILL STREET, PHILADELPHIA.

Lathes, Planers, Shaping, Slotting, Boring, Drilling, Wheel and Screw Cutting; Punching and Shearing Machines; Wheel Presses, Cranes, Cupolas, Forges, Ladles, &c.

SHAPING. — *Bement's Patent Improved Adjustable Hangers*; superior to any others in use, having both Vertical and Horizontal Adjustments, and Self-adjusting Ball and Socket Bearings.

— Catalogue, with full description, sent at request.

Refer to Messrs. Leeds & Co., Messrs. McCann & Patterson, New-Orleans; Messrs. I. D. Spear & Co., Messrs. Shales & Co., Mobile; Gerard B. Allen, Esq., Messrs. Gaty, McCunn & Co., and others, St. Louis, and all the Southern and Southwestern Railroad Companies.



EXCELSIOR MILL

FOR

PLANTERS, FARMERS, AND MILLERS,

Agency, No. 45 Gold-Street, near Fulton-Street, N. Y.

The above cuts represent the exterior and interior of the Mill recently patented by Mr. G. Sanford, and now on exhibition, in actual operation and for sale at the above-mentioned sole agency.

It is a Conical French Burr Stone, of greatly improved construction, combining advantages over ALL others of the same material, in compactness, simplicity, the small amount of power required to operate it, in NOT HEATING THE MEAL, and in being adapted to grind on the same Mill, the coarsest feed, and finest flour.

ANY MAN of common sense can take it apart, dress the stones, and put it together again in two hours, when it will grind from 1,000 to 1,500 bushels of grain without further dressing.

Negroes of sufficient intelligence to run and keep it in perfect grinding order are found on every plantation.

The gin power used by planters is perfectly adapted to drive the Excelsior Mill, as also the ordinary endless chain horse power in use by farmers.

From actual experiment, made with Wheeler's endless chain power, we are prepared to say that with ONE HUMAN three bushels of fine Indian Meal, per hour, can be ground from the hardest corn, which is equal to the work of a four and a half feet flat stone Mill, under an 8 feet head of water on a horizontal wheel.

These are facts worthy the attention of Farmers, Planters and Millers.

A plantation with 200 negroes will, by the use of this Mill, save the cost of it in three months; and the farmer, who feeds ten head of cattle during the winter, will do so in six months.

With five-horse steam power, the Excelsior Mill will grind from 6 to 12 bushels of corn per hour, according to fineness; it is only 36 inches long, 18 wide, and 18 high, weighs 300 lbs.; it is in use in several States, giving perfect satisfaction, bringing us orders, and such flattering testimonials as lead us to believe that it will supersede all other mills as soon as its real value is known.

THE PRICES WILL BE AS FOLLOWS:

For a Mill with bolt that will make the best quality of	\$125
flour, in complete running order - - - - -	100
The same Mill for meal and feed - - - - -	

Larger Mills are furnished at proportionate prices.

Our terms are cash on delivery in this city, and the Mills are warranted perfect in every respect.

Purchasers will receive a liberal commission for acting as agents.

Letters requesting information will be promptly answered. All orders and communications must be sent to the Agency as above.

J. A. BENNET,
SOLE AGENT.

New-York, September, 1850.

July-ly.

RUTGERS FEMALE INSTITUTE,

Nos. 262, 264, and 266 Madison-street, New-York.



The Rutgers Female Institute has been in successful operation for nineteen years. During this period about five thousand young ladies have been under its care, and have received a substantial education, including the valuable ornamental branches. With its commodious edifices, located in one of the most healthful, quiet, and moral neighborhoods in the city, easy of access from all quarters, and surrounded by churches; and, with its very extensive Library and Philosophical Apparatus; its ample range and thoroughness of study; its system of classification, securing the fullest attention of the instructors to the pupils; its large and efficient body of experienced teachers; the vigilant supervision of the Board of Trustees; the freedom from distracting frivolities; the constant aim to impart a solid education of the highest order; the incomparably low charges; and, it may be added, with the character and attainments of its graduates and pupils, and its high standard and widely extended reputation, the Rutgers Female Institute offers to parents and guardians a most eligible opportunity for the education of young ladies.

The Institute comprises three departments—the Preparatory, Academic and Collegiate. These are subdivided, as the number of pupils and the degrees of their progress may require. There is a special department for each extra study, and each room has its separate teacher.

In every department, where it is practicable, free use is made of illustrations to the eye.

It is the aim, in every stage of the course, to have pupils acquire a knowledge of things, facts and principles, rather than mere words. And the studies are so pursued, and varied with appropriate recreation and exercise, as to provide for the physical, intellectual, and moral edification of the pupil. Special attention is given to the inculcation of those great Scriptural principles which should govern the moral being, and to the decorum which should distinguish the social circle. Semi-monthly reports are sent to the parents, and at the close of the academic year, suitable testimonials are given to those who have pursued a commendable course throughout, & a diploma is also given to those who have completed the course of study.

The Twentieth Annual Session commenced on the thirteenth day of September. The Principal has a commodious residence near the Institute, and receives into his family pupils from a distance, who will thus be under his immediate and constant care.

Board, including fuel, lights, and washing, and instruction in English branches, \$300 per annum, payable quarterly in advance.

EXTRAS:

French, German, Italian or Latin.....	\$5 00
Oil Painting and Pastel.....	10 00
Music, for Piano.....	\$15 to 35 00
Use of Instrument.....	5 00
Guitar.....	\$15 to 20 00

The Trustees most cordially invite parents, seeking for their daughters a system of mental culture, most effective in developing and maturing the faculties of the mind, to examine, by personal visitation, the practical working of Rutgers Female Institute. The Principal will be happy to introduce, to any of the Departments, persons wishing to inspect the method of instruction, and to answer all inquiries.

For further information, apply to, or address

Mr. HENRY M. PIERCE, Principal, 217 Madison street.

The Faculty of Instruction consists of the Rev. John M. Kreb, D. D., President, and Lecturer on the Evidences of Christianity; Mr. Henry M. Pierce, Principal, and Professor of Moral Philosophy, assisted by a full corps of able and experienced teachers in all the several Departments.

PERUVIAN SYRUP,

Or, Protected Solution of Protoxide of Iron,

Having successfully passed the ordeal to which new discoveries in the Materia Medica are subjected, must now be received as an established medicine.

ITS EFFICACY IN

CURING DYSPEPSIA,

AFFECTIONS OF THE LIVER, DROPSY, NEURALGIA, BRONCHITIS, AND
CONSUMPTIVE TENDENCIES, DISORDERED STATE OF THE
BLOOD, BOILS, SCURVY, THE PROSTRATING EFFECTS OF
LEAD OR MERCURY, GENERAL DEBILITY, AND ALL
DISEASES WHICH REQUIRE A TONIC AND
ALTERATIVE MEDICINE, IS BEYOND
QUESTION.



The proofs of its efficacy are so numerous, so well authenticated, and of such peculiar character, that sufferers cannot reasonably hesitate to receive the proffered aid.

The Peruvian Syrup does not profess to be a cure-all, but its range is extensive, because many diseases, apparently unlike, are intimately related, and proceeding from one cause, may be cured by one remedy.

The class of diseases for which the Syrup provides a cure, is precisely that which has so often baffled the highest order of medical skill. The facts are tangible, the witnesses accessible, and the safety and efficacy of the Syrup incontrovertible.

The Peruvian Syrup, by its wonderful effects on the Liver, either wholly removes, or radically cures CHILLS AND FEVER.

Those who may wish for an opinion from disinterested persons respecting the character of the Syrup, cannot fail to be satisfied with the following, among numerous testimonials, in the hands of the Agents. The signatures are those of gentlemen well known in the community, and of the highest respectability.

CARD.

The undersigned having experienced the beneficial effects of the "Peruvian Syrup," do not hesitate to recommend it to the attention of the public.

From our own experience, as well as from the testimony of others, whose intelligence and integrity are altogether unquestionable, we have no doubt of its efficacy in cases of Incipient Diseases of the Lungs and Bronchial Passages, Dyspepsia, Liver Complaint, Dropsy, Neuralgia, &c. Indeed its effects would be incredible, but from the high character of those who have witnessed them, and have volunteered their testimony, as we do ours, to its restorative power.

REV. JOHN PIERPONT,
THOMAS A. DEXTER,
S. H. KENDALL, M. D.,
SAMUEL MAY,

THOMAS C. AMORY,
PETER HARVEY,
JAMES C. DUNN,
REV. THOS. WHITTEMORE.

CERTIFICATE OF DR. HAYES.

It is well known that the medicinal effect of Protoxide of Iron is lost by even a very brief exposure to air, and that to maintain a solution of Protoxide of Iron, without further oxidation, has been deemed impossible.

In the Peruvian Syrup, this desirable point is attained by COMBINATION IN A WAY UNFORMERLY UNKNOWN; and this solution may replace all the proto-carbonates citrates, and tartrates of the Materia Medica.

A. A. HAYES, M. D.,

18 Boylston-Street, Boston.

Assayer to the State of Massachusetts.

N. L. CLARK & CO., PROPRIETORS,
NO. 5 WATER-STREET, BOSTON.

ALSO,

KEDWELL & LAWRENCE, Washington,
W. H. BROWN & CO., Baltimore,
HAVILAND, STEVENSON & CO., Charleston,
WARD & JONES, Memphis,
J. WRIGHT & CO., New-Orleans.

RETAILED BY ALL DRUGGISTS.

Feb-17

COUGHS AND COLDS.

Testimony from a highly respectable source.

General John H. Rice, a Practising Attorney in Cass County, Georgia, and Editor and Proprietor of the "Standard," at Cassville, writes thus, over his own signature:

CASSVILLE, GA. }
February 26, 1858. }

Messrs. SETH W. FOWLE & Co., Boston, Mass.,

Gentlemen:—At the request of your Travelling Agent, I give you a statement of my experience in the use of Dr. Wistar's Balsam of Wild Cherry. I have been using it for two years in my family, for Coughs and Colds, and have found it the most efficacious Remedy that I have ever tried.

For Coughs and Colds in children, I know it to be an excellent medium.

Respectfully yours,

JOHN H. RICE.

Fresh and Reliable Testimony.

"WISTAR'S BALSAM OF WILD CHERRY.—We call the attention of our readers to the advertisement of Wistar's Balsam of Wild Cherry, in another column, and assure them they can find no better remedy for Coughs, Colds, Asthma, Bronchial Affections, or any diseases of the Throat or Lungs.

"In August, 1858, an estimable friend of ours returned from a visit in the country, much emaciated, and laboring under a severe cough, which had made such rapid inroads upon her constitution, that we felt something must be done at once, or she would become a victim of consumption. Having known the beneficial results which have occurred from the use of Wistar's Balsam, we made purchase of some for her, and we are happy to say, that before she had taken the contents of one bottle her cough had entirely left her, and she is now in the enjoyment of excellent health."

**COUGHS, COLDS, COUGHS, COLDS,
COUGHS, COLDS, COUGHS, COLDS,
PNEUMONIA,
PNEUMONIA,
BRONCHITIS, HOARSENESS,
BRONCHITIS, HOARSENESS,
ASTHMA,
ASTHMA,**

**WHOOPIING COUGH, CROUP,
WHOOPIING COUGH, CROUP,
INFLUENZA,
INFLUENZA,**

**Consumption, Consumption,
Consumption, Consumption,**

And all diseases of the Throat, Lungs, or Chest, find an unfailing Antidote, a ready relief, in the well-known and highly esteemed remedy,

DR. WISTAR'S BALSAM OF WILD CHERRY.

DR. WISTAR'S BALSAM OF WILD CHERRY.

This medicine is too well known all over the South, to make it necessary to enter into any discussion of its surpassing merits. It is known by its works, by the good it has done, is doing, and is capable of doing. It may be safely asserted, that there is no known remedy that has commended itself to the sympathies of the sick and afflicted as has this valuable curative.

BEWARE OF COUNTERFEITS.

Several counterfeits, and of course worthless as well as deleterious Balsams, have been palmed off upon the community, and it therefore behooves purchasers to look well and purchase only that prepared by

S. W. FOWLE & Co., Boston,

which has their printed name, as well as the written one of I. BUTTS, on the outer wrapper.

SOLD EVERYWHERE.

The following highly respectable firms are agents for sale of the Balsam:

HAVILAND, STEPHENSON & Co., Charleston, S. C.; J. M. TURNER, Savannah, Ga.; HAVILAND, CRICHTON & Co., BARRETT & CARTER, PLUM & LIETNER, Augusta, Ga.; ADIE & GRAY, PUNOELL, LADD & Co., Richmond, Va.; SANTOS, WALKER & Co., Norfolk, Va.; CARNEY, GILPIN & Co., Baltimore; T. W. DYOTT & Sons, Philadelphia; A. B. & D. SANDS & Co., BARNES & PARK, F. C. WELLS & Co., SCHIEFFELIN BROTHERS & Co., New-York.

And sold by Druggists generally.

A Case of Consumption and one of Whooping Cough Cured.

The following from a highly respectable gentleman, speaks for itself:

KEYPORT, N. J., }
May 20, 1858. }

S. W. FOWLE & Co., Gentlemen:—This certifies that I was for many years afflicted with a disease of the lungs until I became so weak that it was with difficulty that I could walk. My cough during this time was very severe, causing me frequently to raise great quantities of blood, attended with profuse night sweats.

After using various remedies to no purpose, I was advised to try Wistar's Balsam of Wild Cherry. I did so, and before using the first bottle I was entirely restored to perfect health and strength.

I would also mention that this Balsam cured a little girl of mine of a severe attack of Whooping Cough, when her life was given over by the physician, and all other remedies failed.

Signed,

JOSIAH HOFF.

None genuine unless signed "I. BUTTS" on the outer wrapper.

Wistar's Balsam of Wild Cherry recommended by Physicians.

ALBANY, }
September 6, 1858. }

S. W. FOWLE & Co., Sirs:—I most cheerfully add my testimony in favor of the Balsam. We have used it in our family, in Pulmonary Affections, and Coughs and Colds, and esteem it a most valuable remedy, and have recommended it in various complaints of this nature, with invariably happy results.

W. B. LYNCH, M. D.

MANFIELD, TIoga Co. PA.
August, 1858.

Gentlemen:—Having used in my practice the last four years, Wistar's Balsam of Wild Cherry, with great success, I most cheerfully recommend it to those afflicted with obstinate Coughs, Colds, Asthma, &c.

H. D. MARTIN, M. D.

FARM FOR SALE!

For Sale, a Farm, in Buncombe County, N. C., on the French Broad, 14 miles from Flat Rock, and 15 miles from Asheville.

It is very accessible, being only 2 miles from the Turnpike leading from Greenville, S. C., to Asheville; and combines advantages of climate, scenery, and fertility, rarely equalled.

The tract consists of 747 acres, upwards of one half of which is fine bottom land, capable of producing 70 bushels of corn to the acre, and the remainder well wooded.

The Mansion is situated upon an elevation, easily approached by an excellent private road, and affords one of the finest mountain views on that part of the country. It is commodious, and constructed of stone from a neighboring quarry, which affords an abundance of that material.

It was commenced a few years since, and the interior finish is not completed. A portion of the material for doing so is on the spot, and a few months would suffice for doing all that is necessary.

On the premises is a small and comfortable residence, which might be occupied until the larger one is finished; also, Servants' Apartments, Stable, Carriage House, Barn, and a Well of fine Water.

For Terms, which will be accommodating, apply to

WM. C. BEE & CO., Charleston, S. C.

AUGUST 20, 1859.

oct-ly

M. W. BALDWIN.

M. BAIRD.

M. W. BALDWIN & CO.,

PHILADELPHIA,

MANUFACTURERS

LOCOMOTIVE ENGINES,

Of the most approved construction, and perfect adaptation to all the variety of circumstances under which they can be usefully employed, ranging in weight from ten to thirty-six tons, and using one half, two thirds, three fourths, or the whole weight for adhesion, as the grade of the road, or business to be done, may render desirable or necessary.

Plan A, and B, on six wheels, single pair of drivers and Truck.

Plan C, on eight wheels, two pairs of drivers and Truck.

Plan D, on ten wheels, three pairs of drivers and Truck.

Plan E, on six wheels, three pairs of drivers.

Plan F, on eight wheels, four pairs of drivers.

The D and E are intended exclusively for freight, and are adapted to roads having heavy grades and curves of short radius. The temporary track over the Blue Ridge, connecting the Eastern and Western divisions of the Virginia Central Railroad, and having grades of 256 feet rise per mile, and curves of three hundred feet radius, has been successfully worked for nearly two years, by six-wheeled D engines of our make.

The materials and workmanship, efficiency and durability, economy of fuel and repairs, are guaranteed equal to any other engines in use.

We refer to the following Railroad Companies:—N. O. J. & G. M. R. R. Co., New Orleans, Louisiana; M. & W. P., Montgomery, Ala.; M. & G., Columbus, Ga.; O. R. R. & B. Co., Savannah, Ga.; G. R. R. & B. Co., Augusta, Ga.; S. C. R. R. Co., Charleston, S. C.; Greenville and Columbia R. R., Columbia, S. C.; W. & R., Wilmington, N. C.; Virginia Central R. R., Richmond, Va.; Pennsylvania R. R. Co., Philadelphia and Reading R. R.; North Penn. R. R.; Philadelphia Ger. & Naz. R. R.; Beaver Meadow R. R.; offices in Philadelphia: Belvidere, Del. R. R., N. J., and others.

apl-1f

R. R. R.

R. R. R.—Radway's Ready Relief for Headaches, whether sick or nervous; Rheumatism, Diarrhoea, Dysentery, Cholera Morbus, Cramps, Influenza, Bloody Flux, Paralysis, Lumbago, Gout, Neuralgia, Toothache, Small Pox, Fever, Swollen Joints, Kidney Complaints, Scarlet Fever, Pains around the Liver, Pleurisy, Measles, Heartburn, and Pains of all kinds. Radway's Ready Relief will, in a few minutes, change the miseries you suffer to joys of pleasure.

R. R. R.—Radway's Renovating Resolvent, for the cure of chronic diseases—such as Scrofulous and Syphilitic complaints, Consumptive and other affections of the Lungs and Throat, Induration and Enlargement of parts, Eruptive and other diseases of the Skin, Nodes, Tumors, Ulcers, Dyspepsia, and all other diseases arising from an impure state of the Blood.

R. R. R.—Radway's Regulators will cure, effectively and speedily, Costiveness, Indigestion, Painter's Colic, Lead Diseases, Inflammation of the Bowels, Dyspepsia, Liver Complaint, Diseases of the Heart and Kidneys, Female Complaints, Small Pox, Fever, Measles, etc. etc. Whenever the system is out of order, or the blood impure, a dose of Radway's Regulators will restore it to regularity, and purify and cleanse the blood. No female should be without them.

R. R. R. Remedies are sold by Druggists and Merchants everywhere.

RADWAY & Co., No. 23 John-Street, New York.

M. W. BALDWIN & CO.

BAIRD'S MARBLE WORKS

Ridge Avenue and Spring Garden street,

PHILADELPHIA, PENNSYLVANIA.

The various improvements which have been made in nearly all the branches of trade, have not been overlooked in the manufacture of MARBLE, and a rapid and important progression has been the consequence. The many changes of style and ornamentation in the interior of our dwellings, have been met by an equal advance in taste, beauty, and cheapness, in the important department of the Arts; and that, too, in a manner unsurpassed in skill by that of any other branch of trade. Human ingenuity, and the powers of invention, have been called into requisition, and with the aid of machinery and steam, that which was deemed almost impossible but a few years ago, is now an everyday occurrence.

The proprietor has been a number of years in the Marble business, and finding, some years since, a desire on the part of the public for a better display in the Monumental Art, he determined that they should be gratified, and directed his attention to an improvement in that department, and he is happy to say that, with the aid of steam machinery (the most of his own invention), he has realized his most sanguine expectations. He has also procured the aid of the first architects of this country, as well as native and foreign ornamental sculptors, for the purpose of furnishing original designs, which have received the approval of a discerning public, both for their beauty of style and cheapness of execution.

Having one of the largest STEAM MARBLE WORKS in the country, he offers his services for the manufacture of Mantels, Monuments, Mosaic Floors, and all other kinds of Marble Work, in a style of the greatest perfection, at the lowest charges, feeling confident that he can complete all orders with punctuality, and satisfaction to all who may favor him with their patronage.

Address as above.

oct-ly

JAMES E. CALDWELL & CO.,

HAVE REMOVED TO THEIR

NEW MARBLE BUILDING,

No. 822 Chestnut-street, Philadelphia,

OPPOSITE THE GIRARD HOUSE.

We respectfully invite our Southern friends to examine our entire NEW STOCK, recently selected by one of the firm in Europe, comprising

SUPERIOR WATCHES,

FROM ESTABLISHED MAKERS.

Only authorized Agents in Pennsylvania for the sale of Charles Frodsham's Gold Chronometer Timekeepers, made in London; and Patek, Philippe & Co., in Geneva, with certificates; Jules Jurgensen Hunting Minute Repeaters and Lightening Seconds; J. E. Caldwell & Co.'s Timekeepers; Edward Favre Brandt, and other makers.

IS-CRAT GOLD CHAINS AND GROUPS,

RICH DIAMOND AND PEARL, NAPLES, ROMAN AND FLORENTINE

JEWELRY,

MAGNIFICENT ENGLISH PLATED ON GERMAN SILVER, AND

Fine Cut Glasswares, of Original Designs,

FOR DESSERT AND ORNAMENTAL PURPOSES.

ARTISTIC BRONZE

CLOCKS AND ORNAMENTS,

FOR THE DRAWING-ROOM.

Sterling Silver Tea Sets, Forks, Spoons, Tureens, Waiters, &c.

ENGLISH AND FRENCH FANCY GOODS.

dec-ly

HENRY V. McCALL,

AGENT FOR THE SALE OF LANDS IN

LOUISIANA, MISSISSIPPI, ARKANSAS AND TEXAS,

OFFICE, No. 50 CAMP-STREET,

OVER MERCHANTS' BANK,

NEW-ORLEANS, LA.

July-ly

504 KING-ST., Charleston, and 11 Camp-St., New-Orleans.

TARRANT'S EFFERVESCENT SELTZER APERIENT.

This valuable and popular Medicine, prepared in conformity with the analysis of the water of the celebrated Seltzer Spring in Germany, in a most convenient and portable form, has universally received the most favorable recommendations of the Medical profession and a Discerning Public, as the

MOST EFFICIENT AND AGREEABLE

SALINE APERIENT

in use, and as being entitled to special preference over the many Mineral Spring waters, Sold-
lia Powders, and other similar articles, both from its compactness and greater efficacy. It
may be used with the best effect in all BILIOUS and FEBRILE DISEASES, SICK HEAD-
ACHE, LOSS OF APPETITE, INDIGESTION, AND ALL SIMILAR COMPLAINTS, PECU-
LIARLY INCIDENT TO THE

SPRING AND SUMMER SEASONS.

It is particularly adapted to the wants of Travellers, by Sea and Land, Residents in Hot
Climates, Persons of Sedentary Habits, Invalids and Convalescents; Captains of Vessels and
Planters will find it a valuable addition to their Medicine Chests.

With those who have used it, it has high favor, and is deemed indispensable.

IN A TORPID STATE OF THE LIVER.—It renders great service in restoring healthy action.
IN GOUT AND RHEUMATISM.—It gives the best satisfaction, allaying all inflammatory
symptoms, and in many cases effectually curing those afflicted.

ITS SUCCESS IN CASES OF GRAVEL, INDIGESTION, HEARTBURN AND COSTIVE-
NESS.—Proves it to be a Medicine of the greatest utility.

ACIDITY OF THE STOMACH, AND THE DISTRESSING SICKNESS SO USUAL DURING
PREGNANCY.—Yields speedily, and with marked success under its healthful influence.

IT AFFORDS THE GREATEST RELIEF TO THOSE AFFLICTED WITH, OR SUBJECT
TO THE PILES.—ACTING gently on the bowels, neutralising all irritating secretions, and
thereby removing all inflammatory tendencies.

In fact, it is invaluable in all cases where a gentle aperient or purgative is required.

It is in the form of a Powder, carefully put up in bottled, to keep in any climate, and merely
requires water poured upon it to produce a delightful effervescent beverage.

Numerous testimonials from professional and other gentlemen of the highest standing
throughout the country, and its steadily increasing popularity for a series of years, strongly
guarantee its efficacy and valuable character, and commend it to the favorable notice of an
intelligent public. Prepared and Sold, Wholesale and Retail, by

JOHN A. TARRANT & CO., Druggists, No. 278 Greenwich St., cor. of Warren, N. Y.
July-17.

GROVER & BAKER'S

CELEBRATED

Family Sewing-Machines,



495 Broadway, New-York.

18 Summer Street, Boston.

780 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

137 Baltimore Street, Baltimore.

58 West Fourth Street, Cincinnati.

Agencies in all the principal cities and villages
in the United States.

A NEW STYLE—PRICE, \$50.

These Machines sew from two spools, and form a seam
of unequalled strength, beauty, and elasticity, which will
not rip, even if every fourth stitch be cut. They are un-
questionably the best in the market for family use.

July-17. SEND FOR A CIRCULAR.

OPINIONS OF THE PRESS.

Grover & Baker's is the best.—*Amer. Agriculturist*.
To all of which the *Tribune* says, Amen.—*Tribune*.
It is all that it claims to be.—*Independent*.
It *deserves* its own work—others do not.—*Home Jour.*
We give it the preference.—*American Baptist*.
It needs to be seen to be appreciated.—*Phoen. Jour.*
Adapted for woollen, linen, or cotton.—*Amer. Monthly*.
We like Grover & Baker's best.—*Ladies' Wreath*.
"Which is the best?" Grover & Baker's.—*Dispatch*.
Superior to all others.—*Mercury*.
We have no hesitation in recommending it.—*Express*.
It requires no re-spooling.—*Evangelist*.
For family use they are unrivalled.—*Daily News*.
They sew a seam that will not rip.—*Courier*.
It performs nobly and expeditiously.—*Examiner*.
Remarkable for firmness of seam.—*Gazette*.
Adapted to all kinds of family sewing.—*Observer*.
Best adapted for family use.—*Day Book*.
We do not hesitate to recommend it.—*Chronicle*.
It sews strongly, and does not rip.—*Life Illustrated*.
The prince of inventions.—*Prot. Churchman*.
It is woman's best friend.—*Weekly News*.
We give our preference to Grover & Baker's.—*Student*.
The most blessed invention.—*Mother's Magazine*.
It makes pleasure of toil.—*Evening Post*.
The favorite for family use.—*Brooklyn Star*.
We highly appreciate their value.—*American Mus.*
It sews a seam that will not rip.—*Wash. Union*.
Cannot be too highly recommended.—*Tenn. Baptist*.
Grover & Baker's is the best.—*Huntingdon Journal*.
The best in use.—*Fittiston Journal*.
Not liable to get out of order.—*Watchtower Jeff*.
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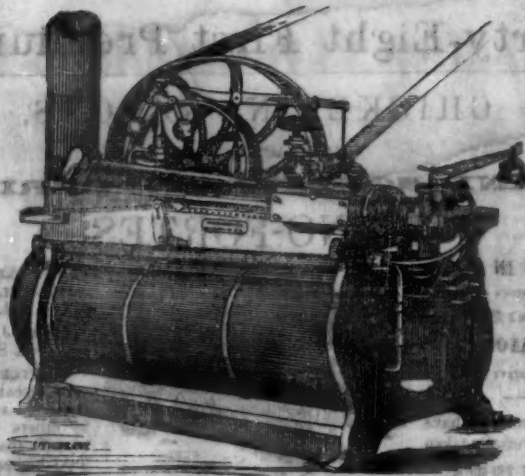
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7

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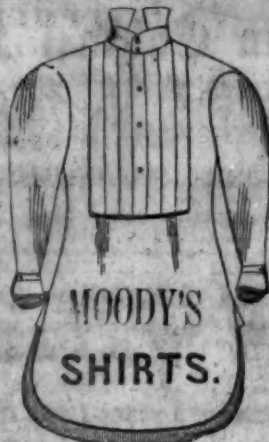
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Our Varnishes are put up in Extra Packages which are Charged at cost.

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A competent Physician resides in the house.

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To practically develop and perfect the Sewing Machine Art, is to carry joy and gladness to no small portion of the civilized world. To a liberal extent, it is to provide an honorable support to the indigent and the dependent, and to multiply the means of social advancement to all.

But to render the Sewing Machine Art in the highest degree useful, it is necessary, 1st.—To divest the Sewing Machine of every loose and clumsy attachment—of every delicate and complicated contrivance. 2d.—It must be simple in its construction throughout, that it may be easily understood and readily adjusted. 3d.—It must be certain in its results, that the operator may not be discouraged with the undoing of imperfect work, and the loss of goods ruined by a second sewing. 4th.—It must be adapted to a great range of workmanship, as most can have but one Machine for every kind of sewing. 5th.—It should be strong and durable in all its parts. This may seem less important for light, family use, where the most delicate Machine may work well for a while, but even this light service will soon render it less certain in its operations, requiring more and more frequent and expensive repairing.

To perfect the Sewing Machine Art, Mr. FINKLE has devoted himself and all his means for the last six or seven years. For this task he was not wholly unprepared, having devoted the greater part of his earlier life to the study and investigation of mechanics, with a view to discover the most simple and available methods of applying correct principles in the construction of machinery.

In his improvements of the Sewing Machine, he has, by better adaptation and connection of its several parts, rendered each movement positive and absolute, and at the same time light and easy, so as to obtain the highest speed with little or no noise, and without injury to the Machine. He has so simplified its construction, that the most inexperienced can soon learn to operate and regulate it without encountering the usual difficulties and discouragements so frequently complained of by beginners in the use of Sewing Machines. Indeed, so triumphant has been his success, that we defy the world to produce the first intelligent and unbiased mechanic who will not pronounce it the very best Sewing Machine he ever saw; but we deem it more dignified that a man's own works should praise him, than we ourselves.

It were an easy task to offer long catalogues of high sounding references, and still easier to publish non-sensical Gazettes of flippant and flattering testimonials from paid newspaper editors and bought-up officials, but it would be of no earthly service to the buyer since the poorest Machines furnish those in the greatest abundance, and that, too, of necessity, like "Quack Medicines," to conceal their lack of merit.

We, therefore, would seek simply an intelligent examination of the MERITS of our Machines in comparison with others—this examination we would have the most impartial. To this end we suggest that the same course be adopted that was adopted by the Board of Examiners, at the Franklin Institute, in Philadelphia, at their last annual exhibition. Their report on Sewing Machines is very instructive, and may be had on application at our office. By thus referring to the course adopted by the Franklin Institute, we may be disclosing a secret of the trade, and yet to those about to purchase a Sewing Machine for family use, it is but doing as we would be done by.

Let the Machine be threaded with fine spool cotton—not silk—the upper and under spools alike; then take some dozen pieces of different fabrics, ranging all the way from the finest gauze to the heaviest cloth, and even stout, hard leather; sew each of these, with the Machine running at its highest speed, without stopping, or even changing the tension; repeat this process backward and forward some scores of times. Now, if the sewing on all the different fabrics is perfect, the seam elastic, and alike on both sides, no skipping of stitches, then it is safe to conclude that the Machine is not a poor Machine at least, and the Machine that will do this best, is the best for family use.

We also manufacture various other Machines for heavy Tailoring, Harness Work, &c.

But we will only add, that we guarantee every Machine we sell to give better satisfaction than any other Sewing Machine in this market. Should it fail to do this, the purchaser is desired to return the Machine and receive his money.

N. B.—We keep constantly on hand a full assortment of SEWING MACHINE FINDINGS.

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LEGIUS LYON.

FINKLE & LYON.

June-1yr.

(ESTABLISHED 1821.)

STEPHEN MORRIS,
THOS. T. TASKER, JR.



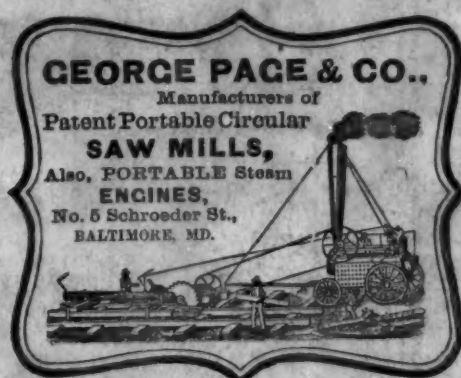
CHAS. WHEELER, JR.,
S. P. M. TASKER.

SOUTH FIFTH AND FRANKLIN STREETS.—WAREHOUSE AND OFFICE, No. 209 SOUTH THIRD STREET, PHILADELPHIA.
MORRIS, TASKER & CO.,
MANUFACTURE

WROUGHT IRON WELDED TUBES, $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 inches bore, for Steam, Gas, Water, &c., with T_h, L_s, Slope, Valves, &c., with Screw Joints to suit tubes.
GALVANIZED TUBES, and fittings as above.
BOILER PLATES, Lap Welded, $\frac{1}{2}$ to 8 inches outside diameter, cut to specific length, 30 feet or under.
ARMED WELL PIPES of Wrought Iron, screwed together, flush inside and out.
COILS OF TUBES, for boiling and evaporating by steam or hot water.
TUBES COILS, for Blast Furnaces, and Tube cut and fitted to plans and specifications sent.
WARMING AND VENTILATING Steam Apparatus, of the most approved plan, for Factories, Public Buildings, Hotels, Private Dwellings, Green Houses, &c., constructed and adapted to the buildings to be warmed.
HOT AND COLD CARRIAGES of every description.
HOT WATER APPARATUS. Tasker's Patent Self-Regulating Hot Water Apparatus for Private Dwellings, School Houses, Hospitals, Green Houses, &c.

GAS WORKS CARRIAGES, Retorts and Bench Carriages, for Coal Gas Works, Street Mains, Bends, Branches, Drips, &c.
ROOF GAS APPARATUS, for Factories, Public Buildings, Hospitals, and Private Dwellings.
ARMED WELL PIPES, of Cast Iron, 6, 8, 10, and 12 inches diameter, with wrought bands or screw coupled, flush inside and out.
GREEN HOUSE PIPES AND BOILERS. Five Degrees and Frames, Hot Water Pipes for Colouring, Conduit Pipes, Pavement Gutters, Soil Pipe.
BATH TUBS, Sinks, Sewer Traps, Soil Pans, and traps, and Water Closet arrangements.
SCREWING MACHINES, Drill Stocks, Stocks and Dies, Taps, Reamers, Drills, Pips, Tongs, and a general assortment of Gas and Steam Fitters' Tools and materials.
FILE.

PAGE'S IMPROVED PATENT CIRCULAR SAW MILLS.



GEORGE PAGE & CO.,
No. 5 North Schroeder-St., near West Baltimore-St.,
MARYLAND.

We are extensively engaged in the manufacture of Page's Improved Circular Saw-Mills, and of Stationary and Portable Steam Engines, Grist Mills, Horse Powers, Irons for Tobacco Presses, &c.

The invention of George Page first brought into successful use the Circular Saw for sawing lumber from the log. No other plan has yet been discovered that can be used with success to the same end.

Any Circular Saw Mill so built as to allow end play or lateral motion to saw shaft, no matter by what mechanical contrivance that lateral motion may be given, is an infringement on our patent, if the mill be not built by ourselves, or under our patent. We make our mills stronger and of greater working capacity than any built in contravention of our patent. They are built with graduating feed motion and patent ratchet headblocks, and all the other modern labor-saving contrivances, and we trust that we will have that preference extended to us that we feel the merit of our invention deserves. We make three classes of Saw-Mills; they will saw from 2,000 to 10,000 feet of plank per day, according to size and power applied, with prices to correspond. Our HORSE POWERS are of three sizes, and strong and well made. Our GRIST MILLS are of various sizes, and of such simplicity of construction that they must please.

Our particular aim in building machinery, is to combine simplicity and durability with powerful working capacity.

For descriptive catalogues or other information, address

GEORGE PAGE & CO.,
Baltimore, Md.

Or our Agents,

MESSRS. SLARK, STAUFFER & CO.
New-Orleans, La.

Jan-lyy.

JACOBS' GALLERY.

— — DAGUERREOTYPES, Ambrotypes and Photographs, NO. 98 CAMP-STREET, NEW-ORLEANS. — —

PICTURES DONE IN OIL AND WATER COLORS, OR IN PASTEL, ON THE
MOST FAVORABLE TERMS, IN THE HIGHEST STYLE OF ART,
AND WITH THE UTMOST DISPATCH.

PLANTERS AND OTHERS

from the Interior are invited to call and inspect the capacious Halls of this
Establishment, and examine the style and finish of the work.

COPIES

of *Daguerreotypes*, or other pictures, painted to life size and in every style.

The reputation of this Establishment has been based upon the results of the
labors of many years.

may—lyr.

AFFLECK'S SOUTHERN RURAL ALMANAC,

HAS BEEN PUBLISHED, ALMOST CONTINUOUSLY, EACH YEAR SINCE 1845.

It has been prepared with a view to being circulated in the families of the Planters in the
South-west; and is to be found in almost every house.

The number circulated, each year, has ranged from 20,000 to 50,000. No more are printed
than are previously ordered, or certain to be circulated.

The aim of the Editor, has been to disseminate useful information; and that, upon subjects
more peculiarly interesting to the Planter and his family, as also to the Overseer.

The regular and increasing demand goes far to prove that he has been successful.

The number for 1860 will be got up with more than usual care. And having made a contract
with a well-known New-Orleans house—that of Messrs. D. Felt & Stetson—for the future pub-
lication of the work, the subscriber believes he may safely promise that, in mechanical execu-
tion, the future numbers will excel the preceding ones.

The price per page, for advertising, is one dollar for each thousand copies circulated, or 85
dollars for 35,000 of a circulation; and in proportion, if the edition exceeds this number. The
certificate of Messrs. D. Felt & Stetson will accompany the receipt for the price of each
advertisement.

The copy goes into the hands of the Printers, on the first of June. It is, therefore, necessary
that all advertisements should reach the hands of the Subscriber, not later than 15th May.

Booksellers, Country Merchants, and others, are supplied with editions of not less than 300
copies, at \$5 per 100. This includes the cost of a business card upon the title-page, and of an
advertisement to occupy the whole of the 4th page of the cover of such edition, but referring
only to the business of the party ordering.

Any number of copies can be supplied, without such card, by Messrs. D. Felt & Stetson, at
\$6 per 100.

AFFLECK'S PLANTATION RECORD AND ACCOUNT BOOKS,

have now been in the hands of Planters for some ten years; and have, without any especial
effort on the part of the publisher, gradually worked their way into such general favor, that
the edition for Cotton Planters now in press, reaches the number of 3,000 copies.

These will be ready about 1st June next. Orders are solicited from the trade; and which
may be addressed to Messrs. D. Felt & Stetson, of New-Orleans. If the order is sent in time to
have the books shipped direct from New-York, a discount of 30 per cent is allowed. If distri-
buted from New-Orleans, 25 per cent. A satisfactory acceptance at 6 months from date of
shipment will suffice; or 5 per cent. off for cash. Address,

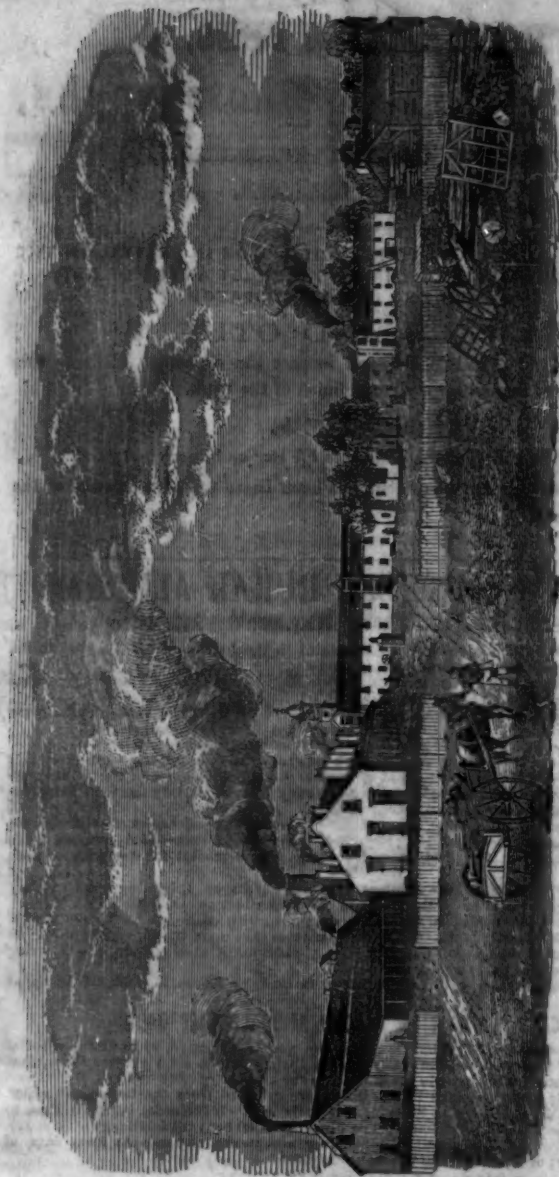
THOMAS AFFLECK,

may—lyr.

Washington, Adams County, Miss.

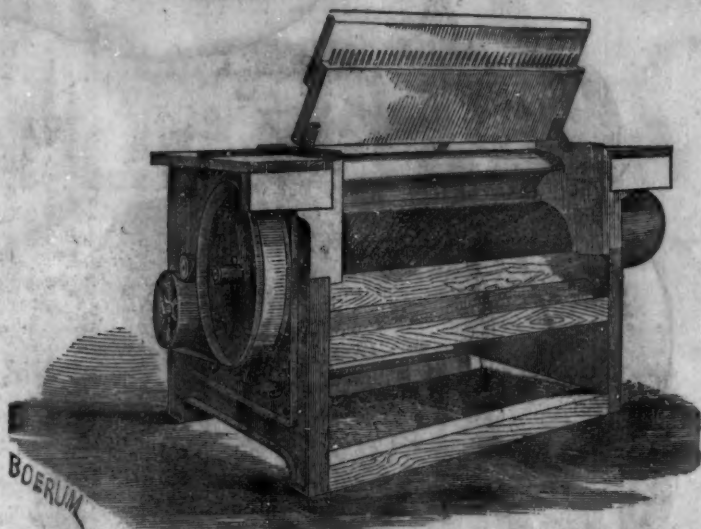
TO COTTON AND

WOOLEN MANUFACTURERS.



We would respectfully invite your attention to the recent improvements made by us upon the Machinery used for CARDING, SPINNING, and WEAVING COTTON AND WOOL. An experience of more than thirty years in the business, has enabled us to bring the Machinery used for that purpose to a high state of perfection. The great point aimed at by us, has been to construct, in the most simple, workmanlike and durable manner, such Machines as would most effectually answer the purpose for which they were designed, with the greatest possible saving of labor and of power. We are prepared to furnish, for every department of COTTON AND WOOLEN MANUFACTURING, the most complete and efficient Machinery ever offered to the public. We would invite particular attention to our *Spreader, Cotton Cards, Box Looms, and our Improved Roller Gin, for Short Staple Cotton.* All orders addressed to
ALFRED JENKS & SON, BRIDGEBURY, PA. dec-ly

TO COTTON PLANTERS.



We would introduce to your notice the

LOUISIANA CYLINDER GIN, FOR SHORT STAPLE COTTON.

A machine which has been long sought for. This Gin has a Roller of a peculiar construction, filled with teeth composed of "Angular Steel Wire," and placed in the Roller tangentially to its axis, so that they always present needle points with broad backs, and are so close together that nothing but Cotton can be secreted between them, leaving the Seeds and Trash upon the surface, and the Sand and Dirt, instead of dulling the teeth in the Roller, sharpens them. In connection with this Roller is a "Stationary Serrated Straight-edge," which acts in concert with it (in effect), the same as the Revolving Rollers do upon the "Sea Island Cotton," combing it under the Straight-edge, and thereby STRAIGHTENING THE FIBRE, preventing ALTOGETHER the Napping of the Cotton, and in no MANNER shortening the Staple. The Cotton is taken from the Roller with the Brush, and thrown into the Lint Room in the usual way. The machine is simple in its construction, having but two motions, the "Roller" and the "Brush," and is not so liable to get out of order, nor to take fire, as the Saw Gin, and occupies much less space, and requires less power than a Saw Gin of the same capacity. A Gin of the capacity of 500 pounds of Lint in two hours, occupies a space of five and a half by three feet, and can be driven with three-mule power, easily. Another peculiarity of this Gin, is, that it takes the Cotton from the surface of the Roll, and presents it to the Brush in a thin sheet, as it passes beyond the Straight-edge, enabling the Brush to mote the Cotton in a superior manner, whilst the Roll in front of the Straight-edge is carried upon the top of it, dividing the two at that point, and following a Curved Iron or Shell, is returned again to the Cylinder, forming a Roll of about eight inches diameter; the Seeds, Bolls and Trash, being retained in the Breast by an adjustable front board, and discharged at the will of the operator, the same as the Saw Gin. The Curved Iron or Shell is capable of being adjusted so as to press the Roll as hard upon the Ginning Roller as may be desired. Anything can be placed in the Breast of this Gin, such as Sticks, Trash, Bolls, &c., as the Roller receives and takes forward nothing but the Lint, and rejects ALL extraneous matter. This is a novel feature in the Gin, and peculiarly adapts it to the wants of large planters who are short-handed, and gather their Cotton trashy, as it increases the value of the Cotton from 1 to 1½ cents per pound more than that ginned upon any other machine.

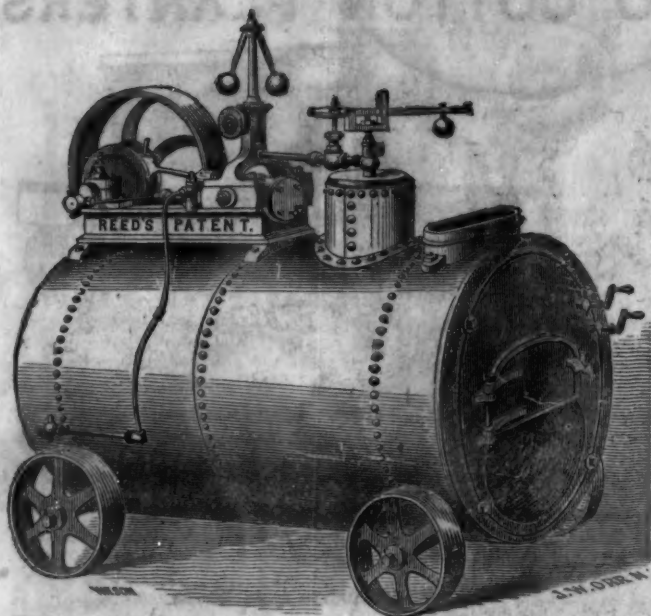
There is a Roller Gin that has been in the Market for several years but the Louisiana is on an entire different principle, and there being no agents for this Gin, apply direct to

ALFRED JENKS & SON,

BRIDESBURG, PA.

MANUFACTURERS OF ALL KINDS OF

COTTON AND WOOLEN MACHINES.



REED'S Patent Steam Engines.

THESE Engines have been used four years, during which time over three hundred of them have been built, thus proving them to be the most simple, durable and economical ever constructed, and for portable or stationary power, superior to all others. They were exhibited at the Palace of Industry, Paris, in 1855, and commanded the attention and admiration of the first Engineers of Europe, who, having tested them, pronounced the result a gain of twenty per cent. over all others, and awarded the first prize to the inventor.

This saving is obtained partly by reducing the working parts to less than half the ordinary number, dispensing with those pieces causing the most friction, viz.: the cross-heads, slides, connecting rod, eccentrics, rock shafts, &c. thereby requiring much less attention, oil, and repairs. The greatest saving, however, is effected by letting the steam in both sides the cylinder at the same time, which doubles the access and egress to and from the cylinder, and avoids all lateral pressure of steam (positive necessities to power and economy in all Steam Engines).

For portable purposes these Engines are placed upon an improved tubular boiler, making a large fire surface, in the strongest and most compact form, very economical in the consumption of fuel, safe and easy to manage by those who are not experienced in operating Steam Engines. The whole is mounted on wheels, with pipes attached, and tested with steam at a high pressure, before leaving the shop, thereby obviating the expense of employing a mechanic to set them up or run them.

Having devoted fifteen years in constructing and adapting steam power to the various purposes for which it is used, such as Sawing, Grinding, Planing, Hoisting, Threshing, Pumping, Cotton Ginning, Coffee Roasting, Printing, &c., &c., we have not only been convinced of the necessity of a compact, simple, durable, economical, and safe steam power, but also of furnishing complete, with our Engines, such Mills, Machinery, &c., as may be required for these purposes.

Parties wishing anything in this line may address the inventor without any hesitation, as he will be most willing to answer any inquiries.

Second-hand Engines taken in exchange, bought and sold at fair valuations. The very best Machinery of all kinds furnished at short notice.

For further particulars address

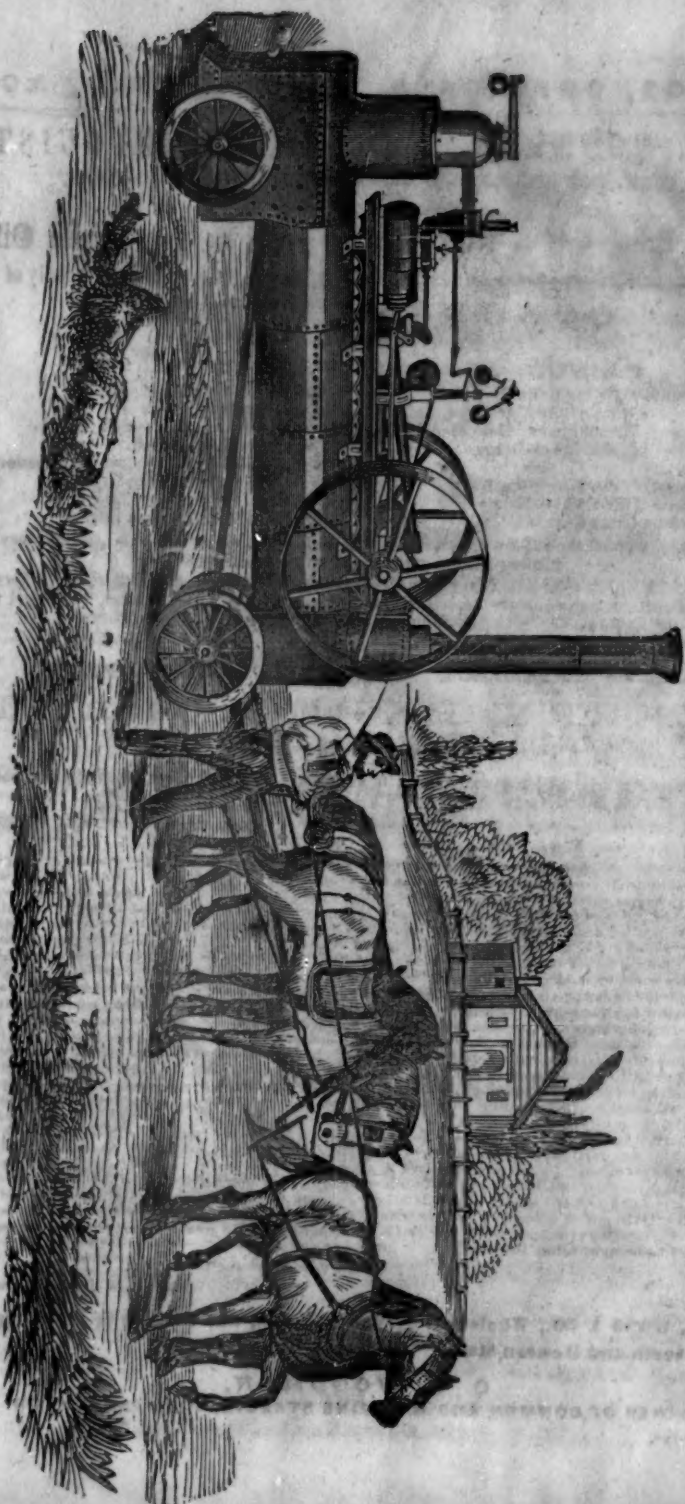
JOHN A. REED,

Feb-1yr.

No. 202 Broadway, cor. Maiden-Lane, N. Y.

PORTABLE CIRCULAR SAW MILLS.

PORTABLE AND STATIONARY STEAM ENGINES, for Sawing Lumber, Gliming Cotton, Driving Grist Mills, and other Plantation uses, from P. RAY'S Engine Machine Works, Richmond, Va.



sub-ly. CONSTANTLY RECEIVING, AND FOR SALE BY EDMUND M. IVENS, General Agent, No. 2 Union-St., New-Orleans.

DRUGS, CHEMICALS, PAINTS, OILS, &C.

O. O. WOODMAN, WHOLESALE DRUGGIST,

CORNER OF COMMON AND MAGAZINE STREETS, NEW-ORLEANS,

IMPORTER AND DEALER IN

Choice Drugs, Selected Medicines, Pure Chemicals, and Essential Oils.

Arrangements have been made to receive, direct from Saratoga, a regular supply of

CONGRESS WATER.

PAINTS, OILS, AND WINDOW GLASS.

20,000 pounds Pure White Lead.
10,000 pounds No. 1 White Zinc Paint. Am.
5,000 pounds French Snow White Zinc.
20 casks French Yellow Ochre.
6 barrels Copal Varnish.
6 barrels White Damar Varnish.
3 barrels Japan Varnish.
2 barrels Coach Varnish.

600 gallons Spirits Turpentine.
1,500 gallons English Linseed Oil.
60 casks English Venetian Red.
60 barrels Lamp Black.
1,000 boxes French Window Glass, assorted
sizes, 8 by 10 to 24 by 30.
100 Kegs Yellow Ochre, in oil.
100 Kegs Venetian Red, in oil.

Together with all the various colors, dry and in oil. All of which will be sold at the very
LOWEST MARKET RATES.

Those who are building Fine Houses are recommended to examine the first quality of French Glass, which is nearly equal to American Crown Glass, and at half the price. I import this article direct from one of the Largest Manufactories in Europe.

THE GREAT COUGH REMEDY! CHERRY EXPECTORANT.

The following original letter was handed to us for publication. A remedy which can elicit such encomiums, must be a good one:

DR. O. O. WOODMAN, New-Orleans:

GALVESTON, TEXAS, April 25, 1880.

My Dear Sir: In justice to you and a duty I owe to a suffering, and, I may say, a world of coughing people, I state what your invaluable Cough Remedy—your Cherry Expectorant—has done for me, when all other remedies have failed to give any relief. In the fall of 1847, living in St. Louis, where I have resided most of the time for the last sixteen years, I took a severe cold which settled on my lungs, and was confined to my bed, and doled and blistered by doctors for several weeks, but finally got on my legs again, but not cured of my hard coughing, and rattling and tickling in my throat, which continued incessantly for more than six months, always the worst in the winter. My friends insisted I had coughed enough to kill a dozen common men, and that I must be in the last stages of consumption. I made up my mind I must cough my life away. I left St. Louis in December last to travel and spend the winter in the South. When I called at your store in Vicksburg, you will recollect, I was coughing so hard I could not talk to make my business known. You said that you would cure my cough. As you gave me a bottle of your Cherry Expectorant, I thought I would not slight you and your medicine so much as not to try it; and in thankfulness shall I ever remember the day I did so. In but a few days it began to allay and diminish my cough and all tickling in my throat; and before I had used more than three-fourths of the contents of that bottle, I was entirely cured, and for weeks I did not even raise a cough, though exposed day and night, in all weathers, in travelling. However, in March, while travelling in North Carolina, I took a severe cold, and my coughing commenced again, and also the tickling in my throat, at intervals; and before my arrival in New-Orleans, on the 12th inst., on some nights my coughing would commence and continue for an hour or two. I soon procured another bottle from you, and in less than two days I was entirely relieved again. I am now determined to always keep a bottle on hand, and in the commencing of a cough, a very few small doses will relieve it entirely. I am now fully satisfied it is the best Cough Remedy now known to the world; and it is a duty you owe to the coughing and afflicted part of the human family, to put so valuable a remedy within the reach of all. Its praise will soon be upon the tongues of tens of thousands of joyful and coughless happy souls. So great a remedy as your Expectorant should be brought before the public.

I am, dear sir, respectfully yours,

R. J. WOODWARD, of St. Louis, Missouri.

O. J. WOOD & CO., Wholesale Agents, St. Louis, and for sale by all Druggists in the South and Western States.

O. O. WOODMAN,
CORNER OF COMMON AND MAGAZINE STREETS, SOLE PROPRIETOR

apr-177.

TRUTH OMNIPOTENT!

We give our readers and the public generally the following copy of a letter received by us from J. W. Vesey, Esq., of the *Aberdeen Conservative*, enclosing at the time a communication to that paper from Colonel Vaser, of North Mississippi, and who was formerly associate editor of the *Conservative*. The subject of the letter and communication we do not feel it necessary to comment on—they tell the whole story, one that ought to go home to those in whose hands the rising generation of children are placed for nurture and for care. All we ask of our readers is a careful perusal of the documents.

CONSERVATIVE OFFICE,
Aberdeen, Miss., August 16th, 1853.

Messrs. Winer & Co.—As my testimonial in reference to your preparations may prove beneficial to you, I enclose the following, published at my request, in the "*Conservative*" of the 15th inst.

Col. Vaser was formerly associate editor of the "*Conservative*," and is well known in North Mississippi, as a gentleman of intelligence and strict integrity.

Respectfully,

J. W. VESEY.

COMMUNICATED.

[For the *Conservative*.]

ABERDEEN, Aug. 10th, 1853.

DEAR VESEY:—Upon the principles of justice and humanity, I am induced to ask your permission to insert this communication in your paper, believing, as I do, that it may be the means of preventing untimely sorrow in many a happy household.

On Friday last, having been for several days previous absent from my family, I found, on my return home, that my infant, aged about 15 months, was quiet unwell, from some unknown cause—apparently to be teething. Upon an examination, however, I was of the opinion that her indisposition proceeded from worms; and having been told by a respectable physician that Winer's Canadian Vermifuge was a sovereign remedy against this terrible enemy of children, I was induced to give it a trial, reluctantly, by the acquiescence of my family physician.

On the following morning (Saturday), I commenced administering it by directions, save in quantity, being afraid to give the amount of prescription. I was unable to detect any impression occasioned by it until late in the afternoon of that day; and should not this, but for the discharge of some thirteen worms, varying in length from two and a half to six inches. This I thought a remarkable number for a nursing child. But, to my great amazement, about one o'clock the next morning I was aroused from my slumber to witness the incredible number of one hundred and thirty-six from one evacuation.

Before breakfast of the same morning (Sunday), but one small dose was administered, which was followed by the discharge of fifty during the day. The next day (Monday), none was administered; but still occasional discharges occurred during the day, varying in size and quantity as described.

On Tuesday morning following, one more small dose was administered, making in all five doses of a quarter of a teaspoonful, instead of a half as prescribed by the label of directions. In all, the little creature has discharged to this date upward of three hundred worms, a majority of which will average five or six inches in length, and is running about as usual, with returning evidences of good health and spirits.

Having met with such astonishing effects in the case of my infant, I was induced to use the Vermifuge on six other children under my possession, varying in age from two to ten years old, and in every case cure was effected (that of the oldest) the like happy results have been produced.

These facts are offered, first, because of my antipathy to vermin of every kind; and second, because my experience has convinced me that in the experiment I have made with Winer's Canadian Vermifuge, it is due to suffering humanity, as well as the manufacturer of the medicine, to make public the results of my observation.

W. H. VASER.

For sale in New-Orleans, wholesale and retail, by

J. WRIGHT & CO.,

21 and 151 Chartres-St.,

may-17y.

SOLE PROPRIETORS.

WINER'S

Canadian Vermifuge

SAVES THE CHILDREN.

WINER'S

Canadian Vermifuge

ought TO BE IN ALL
NURSERIES.

WINER'S

Canadian Vermifuge

IS THE DELIGHT OF
MOTHERS.

WINER'S

Canadian Vermifuge

DESTROYS WORMS AT ONCE.

WINER'S

Canadian Vermifuge

THE DELIGHT OF NURSES.

WINER'S

Canadian Vermifuge

THE ONLY THING THAT CAN BE
RELIED ON TO EXTERMINATE
WORMS.

WINER'S

Canadian Vermifuge

FOR EXPELLING WORMS.

Remember it is the only thing
that can be depended on.

New-Orleans Agency for the South-West
OF
WHEELER & WILSON'S
SEWING MACHINES.

WHEELER & WILSON'S SEWING MACHINES

Have this Fall taken the First Premium at every State Fair held in the United States wherever they have contended, without one exception, viz:

State of Missouri, at St. Louis; State of Illinois, at Centralia; State of Mississippi, at Jackson; State of New-York, at Syracuse; State of New-Jersey; State of Maryland, at Baltimore; State of Virginia, at Richmond; State of California; State of Pennsylvania, at Pittsburg; State of Kentucky; State of Wisconsin; State of Michigan; State of Indiana. And also, this Fall, (1858,) at the Fairs in Chicago, St. Louis, Baltimore, Richmond, and San Francisco.

If these facts do not establish a reputation, we know not what can.

At the above-named TWENTY FAIRS, all held this Autumn (1858), at nearly all of them, the boasted SINGER SHUTTLE MACHINE DID CONTEND, as well as Grover & Baker's, Weed's, Sloat's, Webster's, Bartholf's, and twenty or more others; and ALL, IN EVERY INSTANCE, have been SIGNALLY and FAIRLY BEATEN. No rational man can now deny the fact that the

WHEELER & WILSON SEWING MACHINE

Is the *NE PLUS ULTRA* of all Sewing Machines—the PAUL MORPHY of Creation.

The following is the published report of the PENNSYLVANIA STATE AGRICULTURAL SOCIETY, on awarding the Premium at the conclusion of their Fair at Pittsburg, on the 1st of October last:

"The Committee have given a full opportunity to the exhibitors of several Sewing Machines to show and explain their several articles, and, after a close investigation, have concluded, while Singer's Machine for heavy work is equal to any, and also an excellent Machine for general use, Grover & Baker's is more simple in its construction, and equal in its ability to perform for general purposes; but without disparaging the merits of either of the above, the Committee feel constrained to award a diploma to the Wheeler & Wilson Machine as being the best for all family purposes.

"SIGNED,

"R. B. MOREHEAD,
MOSES F. EATON,
WM. MURDOCK,
JOHN A. SMALL.

"Committee."

WHEELER & WILSON'S MACHINES having taken the First Premiums at all the State Fairs held this Fall (1858) throughout the Union, in every instance where they have contended, over all other Sewing Machines, must be received as conclusive evidence of their unqualified superiority.

An ample supply of these First Premium Machines will be received by every steamer from New-York, and for sale at the only Depot of

WHEELER & WILSON'S SEWING MACHINES,
120 Canal-Street.

S H PECK, Agent

August—6mo.

SOUTHERN PLANTERS

ARE SIMPLY REQUESTED TO CONSIDER THE FOLLOWING NOTICE.

PERUVIAN and other Guanos have been largely used in the States for fertilizing purposes, and while it is conceded that they are excellent for the PROMOTION of Crops, it must not be forgotten that they DO NOT IMPART PERSISTENT fertility to the soil, but are constantly FORCING all NATURAL productiveness there may be FROM the land WITHOUT CONTRIBUTION in return.

There is now offered to the agriculturist a purely National Compost, and one that can be entirely relied upon AS REPRESENTED. The component parts of this Fertilizer are, GREEN SAND MARL, FISH, and pure ANIMAL BONE, three UNRIVALLED and IMPORTANT agents, each in itself extensively used, separately. These are chemically mixed to RETAIN for the soil, for future availableness, all the Ammonia not needed or taken by the plants and cereals.

A letter from Dr. Deck, together with his analysis, are found below:

"The selection and proportion of ingredients in the 'NATIONAL FERTILIZER' render it equal to the best Peruvian Guano, at a far less cost, while its effects are much more persistent.

"For crops of corn, and cereals generally, the combination of Phosphates, Alkalies, and Soluble Silicates, will exert great influence in quickening and sustaining the same, while for grasses, clovers, and bulbous plants, the Ammonia and Potash are indispensable to stimulate and place them beyond the reach of insects.

"In numerous analyses I have made of natural and artificial manures, I find none superior to this in theory, and I doubt not that practical application will sustain it.

"ISAIAH DECK, M. D., *Agricultural and Analytical Chemist.*"

Analytical Laboratory, and Office of Consulting Chemistry and Mining Geology,

18 EXCHANGE PLACE, NEW-YORK. August 6th, 1858.

have carefully analyzed a sample of the "NATIONAL FERTILIZER," and find it to contain:

Moisture.....	8.00	Soluble Silica combined with Potash and Soda.....	20.35
Nitrogenous Organic Matter....	20.50	Insoluble Silica.....	18.00
Mixed Phosphates.....	12.25		
Potash and Soda.....	9.00		
Sulphate of Lime.....	7.50		100.00
Carbonate of Lime.....	2.25		
Oxide of Iron and Alumina....	2.15	Proportion of Available Ammonia.....	5.75
		Soluble in Water.....	21.00

ISAIAH DECK, M. D., *Analytical Chemist.*

The following letter is from Dr. Deck, also:

"Since the above Analysis has been recorded, I have visited the works of the Company, at Highlands, N. J., and am bound to express my satisfaction at the systematic process carried on to produce this *invaluable* Fertilizer.

"The general process of manipulation, and incorporating this with the other valuable ingredients—Phosphates and Alkalies—leaves nothing to be desired, and ought to produce a *perfect* manure.

"Samples taken from the various heaps, in different stages of manufacture, prove its general richness; while those from the bulk, ready for sale, were of the same character as the sample analyzed.

"August 11, 1858."

"ISAIAH DECK, M. D.

For further particulars, address

JOS. C. CANNING, General Agent, 37 Fulton-St., N. Y., or

JNO. B. PEYTON, Agent,
90 Light-Street Wharf, Baltimore.

PHILIP H. MOOF, Agent,
Alexandria, Va.

BROWNLEY, GREENE & CO.,
Agents, Petersburg, Va.

GEO. E. CURTIS, Agent,
Selma, Ala.

LEE & CARTER, Agents,
Montgomery, Ala.

POMEROY & MARSHALL,
Agents, Mobile, Ala.

GUNBY & CO., Agents,
Columbus, Ga.

CARMICHAEL & BEAN,
Agents, Augusta, Ga.

PATTEN & MILLER, Agents,
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Consisting of **FRONTS**, for Stores and Dwellings; **FRONTICES**, for Principal Door and Hall Entrances; **Buttress-Blocks**, Steps and Platforms to Doors, Door Sills and Lintels, Window Sills and Lintels, Caps, Cornices and Flag Stones; Gate Posts, Fence and Wall Coping, &c.

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The numerous testimonials of the purity and superior quality of the **CAPE LIME**, for the purposes of Masonry, and particularly for Plasterers' use in Sugar Making, has induced the Proprietor of the "**CAPE GIBARDEAU MARBLE QUARRIES**" to extend and adapt such improvements in its production as will insure a more perfect calcination, and enable him promptly to supply the increasing demand.

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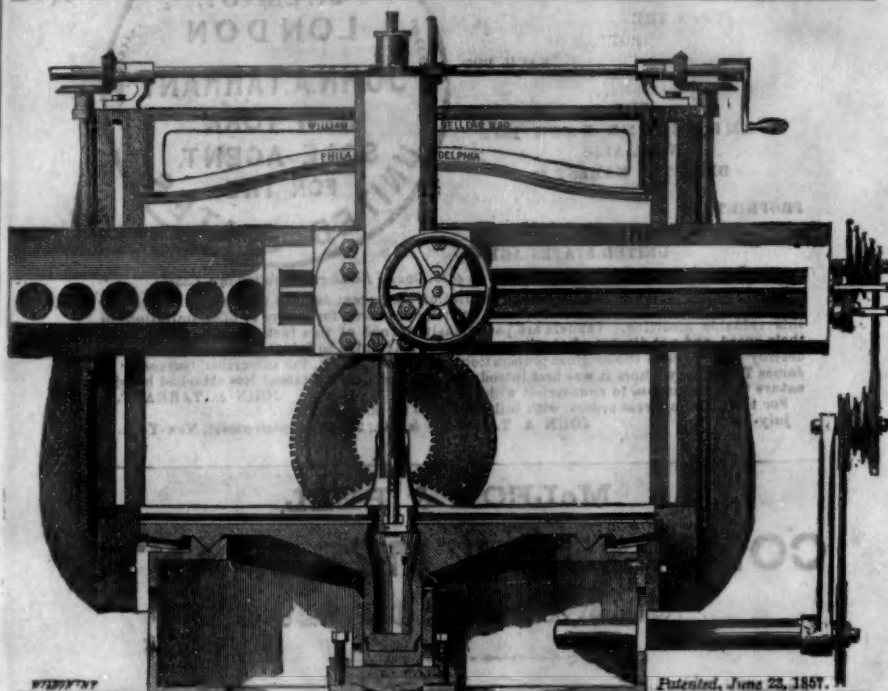


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Dec-3m.



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As the above valuable preparation has been extensively counterfeited by unprincipled parties in the United States,

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SECURE THE GENUINE,
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BURNED IN
UPON THE
BOTTOM OF
EACH POT.

THE
STAMP AROUND EACH POT
WILL ALSO
BEAR THE NAMES
OF THE
PROPRIETOR,
AND OF THE
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IMPORTANT CAUTION.—The increased reputation and great demand for Thorn's Compound Extract of Copaiba and Sarsaparilla, have been inducements for others to offer imitations of this valuable medicine. Venders are particularly warned of this fact, that they may be on their guard, and not dispose of any impure article, calculated to injure their reputation, and destroy the merits of the original preparation; to obviate which, the subscriber (successor to James Tarrant, by whom it was first introduced into the United States,) has attached his signature to this caution, to counterfeit which is forgery.

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Together, form the two great health-giving remedies of the nineteenth century. While the former acts through the external orifices, as water penetrates the parched soil, the latter purifies the blood and renders the physical machinery healthy and vigorous. Sold at the manufactory.

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THIRTY BALLS CAN BE LOADED AND DISCHARGED IN ONE MINUTE.

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It has but two necessary valves—no stuffing box—and a strong plunger, is less liable than any other to break or get out of order, and easier repaired when it does. And yet it is the most powerful double acting force and lift pump in the world. And though supplied with two air chambers, and requiring less expensive pipe, it is yet the cheapest to be found. They give universal satisfaction, as we can prove by hundreds in this city who have bought and are using them; and by other hundreds throughout America, Europe, and Asia.

We beg to refer to the few following named well-known gentlemen who have them, viz.:—R. Hoe & Co., J. O. Morse & Co., W. B. Dinamore, of Adams & Co., New-York; Robert Reenie, Lodi Print Works, Lodi, N. J.; D. Jose Calderon y Kessel, Havana, Cuba; Hon. S. R. Mallory, Pensacola, Fla.; Col. Hallows, St. Mary's, Ga.; L. N. Walshall, Marion, Ala.; Isham Thompson, Matagorda, Texas; Clarkson, Anderson & Co., Richmond, Va.; Hopkins & McGinnis, Tallahassee, Fla.

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THIS RECENTLY INVENTED PUMP STANDS WITHOUT A RIVAL. IT IS MADE OF WROUGHT AND CAST IRON, WORKS BY HAND AND LEVER POWER

IN ALL DEPTHS UNDER ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY FEET.



It is simple, powerful, durable, cheap—varying from \$18 to \$70—and can be used with iron, rubber, or lead pipe; will not freeze; raises from ten to sixty gallons per minute, and is

WARRANTED IN EVERY PARTICULAR

As may be seen in cut, rods extend from lever to bottom, where they are attached to lever on air-chamber, at bottom, in the shape of a T, which drops through the air-chamber and piston, pushing it backwards and forwards, discharging at each end into the air-chamber, causing a perfectly regular motion, and making it a

"DOUBLE ACTING FORCE PUMP,"

Driving the water up through the air-chamber and pipe to the top, either perpendicularly or up inclined planes.

Drawings and full particulars sent free. Address

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WATCHES, CLOCKS, FINE JEWELRY,
Precious Stones,
AND FANCY GOODS.
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FRENCH GLASS OF ALL SIZES,
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CRENOBLE FIRE HOSE.



This superior Hose manufactured of the finest of Hemp, without seam, is especially adapted for the use of FIRE ENGINES and FORCE PUMPS, MILLS and MANUFACTORIES, STEAMBOATS and RAIL ROADS, HOTELS and GARDENS, and other HYDRAULIC purposes. Its advantages over other Hose are its lightness and CHEAPNESS, costing less than ONE HALF of the price of leather hose, with the same durability.—Certificates of its efficiency from James GAY, Esq., Chief Engineer of the Brooklyn Navy Yard, Lieut. G. B. BALCH, JOHN RAINSON, and ABEL G. DAVIS, Esqs., Washington Navy Yard, ALFRED CARSON, Esq., Ex-Chief Engineer, New York Fire Dept., HAML A. FRENCH, Esq., Chief Engineer, Jersey City, N. J. Fire Dept., JAMES B. FRANCH, Esq., Agent and Engineer of Locks and Canals, Lowell, Mass., and numerous other practical and experienced parties, can be examined at my office. ISAAC N. MARKS, Esq., Chairman of the New Orleans Fireman's C. A.

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Fine London Guns, from
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Double and Single Guns,
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Colt's and about twenty
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GUNS.

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SEND FOR A CIRCULAR.

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Clarified Cider Vinegar, White Wine Vinegar, Champagne Cider, warranted to meet the approbation of the purchaser.

Barrels in good shipping order.

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COPPER RIVETED LEATHER HOSE

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PREPARED BY

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WILL EFFECTUALLY CURE

LIVER COMPLAINT, DYSPEPSIA, JAUNDICE,

Chronic or Nervous Debility, Diseases of the Kidneys, and all Diseases arising from a Disordered Liver or Stomach.

The proprietor, in calling the attention of the public to this preparation, does so with a feeling of the utmost confidence in its virtues, and adaptation to the diseases for which it is recommended.

It is no new and untried article, but one that has stood the test of a ten years' trial before the American people, and its reputation and sale are unrivalled by any similar preparation extant. The testimony in its favor given by the most prominent and well-known physicians and individuals in all parts of the country, is immense, and a careful perusal of the Almanac published annually by the proprietor, and to be had gratis of any of his Agents, cannot but satisfy the most skeptical that this remedy is really deserving the great celebrity it has obtained.

Dr. Hoofland's Balsamic Cordial will cure coughs, colds, &c.

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For sale by Druggists and Storekeepers in every town and village in the United States.

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CARRIAGES OF EVERY DESCRIPTION BUILT TO ORDER.

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PRENTISS
WASHING AND SCOURING SOLUTION.

MANUFACTURED FROM SOLUBLE GLASS.—PATENTED JUNE 22, 1852.

This important discovery has just been patented by the United States, and it is now confidently recommended to manufacturers, housekeepers and others. It is a labor-saving preparation, and costs less than half of any other article known for cleansing purposes. While it cleanses, whitens, and purifies Cotton, Linen, and Woolen Goods, of every description, it will not injure the most delicate fabric. Certificates of its value have been given by some of the leading manufacturers of the country, as well as by many reliable housekeepers and citizens. Printers will discover that the Solution alluded to will cleanse their type more readily than the old system of using Potash.—Manufactured by the Patentee, and for sale by

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CHESNUT GROVE WHISKEY,



A desire to lessen the consumption of impure spirits, knowing their injurious effects on the constitution, has induced the offering to the public of an article, which the analysis of Professor CHILTON, Analytical Chemist, of New-York, and Messrs. BOOTH, GARRETT & CAMAC, of Philadelphia, proves beyond all question to be the most pure, and consequently least injurious spirit ever offered the American public.

Certificate of James R. Chilton.

"I have analysed a sample of CHESNUT GROVE WHISKEY, received from Mr. Charles Wharton, Jr., of Philadelphia, and having carefully tested it, I am pleased to state that it is entirely free from poisonous or deleterious substances. It is an unusually pure and fine flavored quality of Whiskey.

JAMES R. CHILTON, M. D., Analytical Chemist.

New-York, September 3d, 1853."

PHILADELPHIA, September 9th, 1853.

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"Yours, respectfully,

BOOTH, GARRETT & CAMAC, Analytical Chemists.

"To CHAS. WHARTON, Jr., No. 23 South Front-street Philadelphia."

Oct-1yr.

AMERICAN SOLIDIFIED MILK,

DRIED AND GRANULATED FROM PURE MILK,

At the American Solidified Milk Works,

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SECURED BY LETTERS PATENT, DATED JUNE 27, 1854.

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PUBLISHED BY THE NEW-ORLEANS DELTA NEWSPAPER COMPANY.

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1859.	1859.	1859.
FROM NEW-YORK.	FROM HAVRE.	FROM SOUTHAMPTON
Steamer Fulton, June 25,	Steamer Arago, June 28,	Steamer Arago, June 29,
" Arago, July 23,	" Fulton, July 26,	" Fulton, July 27,
" Fulton, Aug. 20,	" Arago, Aug. 23,	" Arago, Aug. 24,
" Arago, Sept. 17,	" Fulton, Sept. 20,	" Fulton, Sept. 21,
" Fulton, Oct. 15,	" Arago, Oct. 18,	" Arago, Oct. 19,
" Arago, Nov. 12,	" Fulton, Nov. 15,	" Fulton, Nov. 16,
" Fulton, Dec. 10,	" Arago, Dec. 13,	" Arago, Dec. 14,
1860.	1860.	1860.
Steamer Arago, Jan'y 7,	Steamer Fulton, Jan. 10,	Steamer Fulton, Jan. 11,
" Fulton, Feb. 4,	" Arago, Feb. 7,	" Arago, Feb. 8,
" Arago, March 3,	" Fulton, Mar. 6,	" Fulton, Mar. 7,
" Fulton, March 31,	" Arago, April 3,	" Arago, April 4,
" Arago, April 28,	" Fulton, May 1,	" Fulton, May 2,
" Fulton, May 26,	" Arago, May 29,	" Arago, May 30,
" Arago, June 23,	" Fulton, June 26,	" Fulton, June 27,

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FRIEND SELPHO: I took a walk across the Central Park yesterday—the roughest kind of traveling—and was delighted with the elastic, life-like feeling of your new Patent Joint, and to experience the self-controlling hold which the foot takes on such rocky and uneven ground. It is truly a great invention, and from my heart I wish you that success which you so highly merit.

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T. H.

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Prevents the Hair falling off.

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Promotes its healthy Growth.

Burnett's Cocoaïne

Soothes the Irritated Scalp Skin.

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Gives New Life to the Hair.

Burnett's Cocoaïne

Subdues Refractory Hair.

Burnett's Cocoaïne

Kills Dandruff.

Burnett's Cocoaïne

Is not Greasy or Sticky.

Burnett's Cocoaïne

Is not an Alcoholic Wash.

Burnett's Cocoaïne

Leaves no Disagreeable Odor.

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Affords the richest Lustre.

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But this Guano, (as originally introduced by J. S. Reese, and now prepared by the present firm of John S. Reese & Co.,) is not only equal to Peruvian alone, and superior in permanent effect, but it is far more economical, being from \$9 to \$10 per ton less cost; hence the consumer of ten, twenty or thirty tons, saves from \$100 to \$300, and gets more real value. The secret is, that in buying Peruvian Guano, the consumer pays for a useless quantity of *ammonia*, (the most costly element,) and gets an inadequate supply of the less expensive, but not less valuable element of *Phosphate of Lime*.

It is quite probable, from the fact that the value of this Guano depends so much upon the fidelity of its production, that some to whom we are unknown, are deterred from its use by apprehension that it will be made inferior. To all such we beg respectfully to say, that the matter is of sufficient importance to justify an inquiry, and we will cheerfully furnish any inquirer with such reference as will be satisfactory on this point.

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NOTICE AND CAUTION.

Although the introduction of our Guano was bitterly opposed by the trade, and various means resorted to in order to break down our enterprise, yet, since its success has become so great, some of our bitterest opponents have become our imitators, and by their praises of what they so lately denounced, show how some men's opinions are controlled by what they conceive to be their interest. It is to be hoped there are but few of this class. These imitators not only appropriate the name we gave our Guano, but with a degree of temerity rarely attained, have the modesty to say, (2) "None other genuine." Not only so, they, with the same freedom, resort to our publication to supply themselves with matter to recommend their imitations.

Now we deem it important for the protection of the public and ourselves, to caution them against these imitations. First, because the name "Manipulated Guano" may be applied to anything. Secondly, because the facility for producing, and the difficulty of discovering an inferior combination are so great, that the desire to make trade, by selling at reduced prices, will certainly lead to that result. Such is the disposition also of many to buy "cheap," that they often unwittingly encourage the very frauds they deprecate and bitterly complain of. A compensating price must be paid for a reliable and good article. Competition, it is said, is the life of trade, and so it is; but in this particular branch, it is easy to see how it may be the death of both the trade and trader. Hence, we caution those who wish to use our Guano, to specify in their orders "Reese's," and obtain it from our agents, and observe that our name is branded on the bags.

JOHN S. REESE & CO.,

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LAW AND AGENCY OFFICE.

The undersigned has returned to the practice of his profession, at New-Orleans.

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